A NEW

SYSTEM

OF

MODERN GEOGRAPHY:

OR, A

Geographical, Hiſtorical, and Commercial Grammar;

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE SEVERAL

KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian Syſtem and the lateſt Obſervations.
II. A general View of the Earth conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems.
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TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

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II. A TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY.
III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of remarkable Events from the Creation to the preſent Time.

By WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.
The ASTRONOMICAL Part by JAMES FERGUSON, F.R.S.

To which have been added,

The late DISCOVERIES of Dr. HERSCHELL, and other eminent ASTRONOMERS.

THE FIFTH EDITION, CORRECTED, IMPROVED, AND GREATLY ENLARGED:
WITH A COPIOUS INDEX.

LONDON,
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Jos: Banks

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE nature, deſign, and general plan of this work being particularly pointed out in the original Preface, which follows this Advertiſement, it will only be neceſſary to inform the public of what has been done in this enlarged and improved edition.

It would not be eaſy, though only in a general way, to ſpecify the various additions which have been made to the Civil and Natural Hiſtory of the reſpective kingdoms and ſtates, to the deſcriptions of the Manners and Cuſtoms of the people, their different governments, trade, and commerce, &c. The augmentation of *one hundred and eighty quarto pages*, more than in the laſt Edition, of important information, derived from the moſt authentic travels and voyages, muſt conſiderably increaſe the value of that which is now ſubmitted to the public. From theſe ſources, which have greatly added to the ſtock of our geographical and political knowledge, many intereſting particulars are now added to the deſcriptions of Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Poland, Spain, Switzerland, and the Two Sicilies. The hiſtorical narrative throughout has been brought down to the preſent time, and attention has been paid to the important occurrences which, in this "eventful period," have ariſen upon the continent of Europe.

The account of Aſia has been conſiderably enlarged. The hiſtory, government, laws, religion, literature and commerce of India, have been given from Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtorical Diſquiſitions concerning that country: and Major Rennell, by his ſplendid and accurate Map of Hindoſtan, with his Memoir of that Map, has afforded ample materials for enlarging our geographical knowledge of an immenſe region, which is now become an intereſting object of popular curioſity.

An accurate knowledge of Africa, ſtill continues to be a great deſideratum in geographical ſcience. The interior parts of that immenſe continent remain at the end of the eighteenth century in a great meaſure unknown. However every publication, which could remove our ignorance has been attended to. The five ponderous quarto's of Mr. Bruce, the Travels of Vaillant, the Proceedings of the African Aſſociation, and Major Rennell's Memoir and Map of the northern parts of this quarter of the globe, have been carefully peruſed, and have each furniſhed their ſhare of information.

Mr. Morſe, an American gentleman, has publiſhed a large account of the geography of the United States. From which have been given their reſpective diviſions into diſtricts, counties, towns, &c. a view of the newly-formed ſtates of Kentucke and Vermont, with ſeveral other particulars.

From a variety of other authentic publications the preſent Edition has been greatly enriched, and not only the ideas but the language of the writers has ſometimes been uſed, although the reader has not been always appriſed of it.

Great attention has been paid to the Maps. They have all undergone a very accurate reviſion, they have received many improvements, and of themſelves form a complete Atlas. Beſides the ſeven new plates which were given in the laſt Edition, two improved maps of Poland and Africa make their appearance in this.—Upon the whole, it is hoped that the public will receive the moſt ample conviction that neither labour or expence have been ſpared to render the preſent Edition worthy of a juſt and continued claim to general notice and approbation.

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PREFACE.

TO a man ſincerely intereſted in the welfare of ſociety and of his country, it muſt be particularly agreeable to reflect on the rapid progreſs and general diffuſion of learning and civility, which, within the preſent age, have taken place in Great Britain. Whatever may be the caſe in ſome other kingdoms of Europe, we, in this iſland, may boaſt of our ſuperiority to thoſe illiberal prejudices, which not only cramp the genius, but ſour the temper of man, and diſturb all the agreeable intercourſe of ſociety. Among us, learning is no longer confined within the ſchools of the philoſophers, or the courts of the great; but, like all the greateſt advantages which Heaven has beſtowed on mankind, it is become as univerſal as it is uſeful.

This general diffuſion of knowledge is one effect of that happy conſtitution of government, which, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, was confirmed to us, and which conſtitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people poſſeſs little wealth, have little power, and conſequently meet with little reſpect; in Great Britain, the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of courſe, a proper ſhare of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their ſtudies; as the great body of the people, no leſs than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amuſed and inſtructed. Books have been diveſted of the terms of the ſchools, reduced from that ſize which ſuited only the purſes of the rich, and the avocations of the ſtudious; and adapted to perſons of more ordinary fortunes, whoſe attachment to other purſuits admitted of little leiſure for thoſe of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that ſuperior improvement, which diſtinguiſhes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and advance this improvement, is the principal deſign of our preſent undertaking. No ſubject appears more intereſting than that which we have choſen, and none ſeems capable of being treated in a manner that may render it more generally uſeful.

The knowledge of the world, and of its inhabitants, though not the ſubliméſt purſuit of mankind, is that which moſt nearly intereſts them, and to which their abilities are beſt adapted. And books of Geography, which deſcribe the ſituation, extent, ſoil, and productions of kingdoms; the genius, manners, religion, government, commerce, ſciences, and arts of all the inhabitants upon the earth, promiſe the beſt aſſiſtance for attaining this knowledge.

The Compendium of Geography, now offered to the public, differs in many particulars from other books on that ſubject. Beſides exhibiting an eaſy, diſtinct, and ſyſtematic account of the theory and practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author has attempted to render the following performance an inſtructive, though compendious, detail of the general hiſtory of the world. The character of nations depends on a combination of many circumſtances, which reciprocally affect each other. There is a nearer connection between the learning, the commerce, the government, &c. of a ſtate, than moſt people ſeem to apprehend. In a work of this kind, which pretends to include moral or political, as well as natural geography, no one of thoſe objects ſhould paſs unnoticed. The omiſſion of any one of them would, in reality, deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only intereſting in itſelf, but abſolutely neceſſary for enabling us to form an adequate and comprehenſive notion of the ſubject in general. We have thought it neceſſary, therefore, to add a new article to this work, which comprehends the hiſtory and preſent ſtate of learning in the ſeveral countries we deſcribe, with the characters of ſuch perſons as have been moſt eminent in the various departments of letters and philoſophy. This ſubject will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requiſite, when we conſider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, government, and general character of nations. Theſe objects, indeed, till of late, ſeldom found a place in geographical performances; and, even when occaſionally introduced, are by no means handled in an entertaining or inſtructive manner. Neither is this to be altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The greater part of travellers, acting ſolely under the influence of avarice, the paſſion which firſt induced them to quit their native land, were at little pains, and were indeed ill-qualified to collect ſuch materials as are proper for gratifying curioſity, or affording inſtruction. The geographer, then, who could only employ the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any important information In the courſe of the preſent century, however, men have begun to travel from different motives. A thirſt for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many into diſtant lands. Theſe they have explored with a philoſophic attention; and by laying open the internal ſprings of action, by which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to us a natural

and

and ſtriking picture of human manners, under the various ſtages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifeſt impropriety, we could not but avail ourſelves of their labours, by means of which, we have been enabled to give a more copious, and a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than has hitherto appeared.

In conſidering the preſent ſtate of nations, few circumſtances are of more importance than their mutual intercourſe. This is chiefly brought about by commerce, the prime mover in the œconomy of modern ſtates, and of which, therefore, we have never loſt ſight in the preſent undertaking.

We are ſenſible, that a reader could not examine the preſent ſtate of nations with much entertainment or inſtruction, unleſs he was alſo made acquainted with their ancient ſituation, and with the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have aſſumed their preſent form and appearance. This conſtitutes the hiſtorical part of our Work; a department which we have endeavoured to execute in a manner entirely new. Inſtead of fatiguing the reader with a dry detail of news-paper occurrences, occurrences no way connected with one another, or with the general plan of the whole, we have mentioned only ſuch facts as are intereſting, either in themſelves or from their relation to objects of importance. Inſtead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the hiſtory of each country, ſuch an epitome as may be read, we hope, with pleaſure and advantage, and which may by conſidered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

Having, through the whole of the work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and, in treating of their particular hiſtory, ſometimes carried our reſearches beyond the limits of modern times, we have thought it neceſſary, for the ſatisfaction of ſuch readers as are unacquainted with claſſical learning, to begin our hiſtorical Introduction with the remote ages of antiquity. By inſerting an account of the ancient world in a book of geography, we afford an opportunity to the reader, of comparing together not only the manners, government, and arts of different nations, as they now appear, but as they ſubſiſted in ancient ages; which exhibiting a general map, as it were, of the hiſtory of mankind, renders our work more complete than any geographical treatiſe extant.

In the execution of our deſign, we have all along endeavoured to obſerve order and perſpicuity. Elegance we have ſacrificed to brevity. Happy to catch the leading features which diſtinguiſh the characters of nations, and by a

few ſtrokes to hit off, though not completely to finiſh, the picture of mankind in ancient and modern times.

What has enabled us to compriſe ſo many ſubjects within the narrow bounds of this work, is the omiſſion of many immaterial circumſtances, which are recorded in other performances of the ſame kind, and of all thoſe fabulous accounts or deſcriptions, which, to the diſgrace of the human underſtanding, ſwell the works of geographers; though the falſity of them, both from their own nature and the concurring teſtimony of the moſt enlightened and beſt-informed travellers and hiſtorians, be long ſince detected.

As to particular parts of the work, we have treated them more or leſs diffuſely, in proportion to their importance to us as men, and as ſubjects of Great Britain. Our own country, in both reſpects, deſerved the greateſt ſhare of our attention. Great Britain, though ſhe cannot boaſt of a more luxuriant ſoil or happier climate than many other countries, has advantages of another and ſuperior kind, which have made her the delight and envy of the world: theſe are the equity of her laws, the freedom of her political conſtitution, and the moderation of her religious ſyſtem. With regard to the Britiſh empire we have therefore been ſingularly copious.

Next to Great Britain, we have examined moſt extenſively the other ſtates of Europe; and always in proportion as they preſent us with the largeſt field for uſeful reflection. By comparing together our accounts of the European nations, an important ſyſtem of practical knowledge is inculcated; and a thouſand arguments will appear in favour of a free government, religious toleration, and an extended, unreſtrained commerce.

Europe having occupied ſo large a part of our volume, Aſia next claims our attention; which, though in ſome reſpects the moſt famous quarter of the world, offers, when compared to Europe, extremely little for our entertainment or inſtruction. In Aſia, a ſtrong attachment to ancient cuſtoms, and the weight of tyrannical power, bear down the active genius of the inhabitants, and prevent that variety in manners and character, which diſtinguiſhes the European nations.

In Africa, the human mind ſeems degraded below its natural ſtate. To dwell long upon the manners of this country, a country immerſed in rudeneſs and barbarity, beſides that it could afford little inſtruction, would be diſguſting to every lover of mankind. Add to this, that the inhabitants of Africa, deprived of all arts and ſciences, without which the human mind remains tor-

pid and inactive, diſcover no great variety in manners or character. A gloomy ſameneſs almoſt every where prevails; and the trifling diſtinctions which are diſcovered among them, ſeem rather to ariſe from an exceſs of brutality on the one hand, than from any perceptible approaches towards refinement on the other. But though theſe quarters of the globe are treated leſs extenſively than Europe, there is no diſtrict of them, however barren or ſavage, entirely omitted.

America, whether conſidered as an immenſe continent, inhabited by an endleſs variety of different people, or as a country intimately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and and government, deſerves very particular attention. The bold diſcovery, and barbarous conqueſt of this New World, and the manners and prejudices of the original inhabitants, are objects, which, together with the deſcription of the country, deſervedly occupy no ſmall ſhare of this performance.

In treating ſuch a variety of ſubjects, ſome leſs obvious particulars, no doubt, muſt eſcape our notice. But if our general plan be good, and the outlines and chief figures ſketched with truth and judgment, the candour of the learned, we hope, will excuſe imperfections which are unavoidable in a work of this extenſive kind.

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, inſiſt upon the other parts of our plan. The ſcience of natural geography, for want of proper encouragement from thoſe who are alone capable of giving it, ſtill remains in an imperfect ſtate; and the exact diviſions and extent of countries, for want of geometrical ſurveys, are far from being well aſcertained. This conſideration has induced us to adopt the moſt unexceptionable of Templeman's Tables; which if they give not an account ſtrictly accurate, afford at leaſt a general idea of this ſubject; which is all indeed that we can attain, until the geographical ſcience arrives at greater perfection.

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INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

Of the PLANETS, the COMETS, the FIXED STARS, and the different SYSTEMS of the WORLD.

THE ſcience of GEOGRAPHY cannot be underſtood without conſidering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a conſiderable diſtance from it. The ſcience which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called ASTRONOMY: hence the neceſſity of beginning this work with an account of the heavenly bodies. Of theſe, the moſt conſpicuous is the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the planets that move round it; and which, together with the ſun, compoſe what is called the Solar Syſtem. The path in which the planets move round the ſun, is called their Orbit; and it is now proved by aſtronomers, that there are ſeven planets which move round the ſun, each in its own orbit. The names of theſe, according to their nearneſs to the centre, or middle point of the ſun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two firſt, becauſe they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the ſun), are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets; the four laſt, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *ſuperior*, or, perhaps more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of theſe planets, ſuppoſe the earth, moves round the ſun, we can eaſily conceive the manner in which all the reſt perform it. We ſhall only therefore particularly conſider the motion of the earth, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we ſhall deliver, with ſuch explanations as may render it intelligible to the meaneſt capacity.

The earth was long conſidered as one extenſive plane, of no remarkable thickneſs, and the regions below it were ſuppoſed to be the habitations of ſpirits. The heavens, in which the ſun, moon, and ſtars appeared to move daily from eaſt to weſt, were conceived to be at no great diſtance from it, and to be only deſigned for the uſe or ornament of our earth: ſeveral reaſons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; and we have now a ſufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have ſailed round it, particularly from that of Magellan's ſhip, which was the firſt that ſurrounded the globe, ſailing eaſt from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame, after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving round a ball of wax.

The roundneſs of the earth being eſtabliſhed, a way was naturally opened for the diſcovery of its motion; for while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding, on pillars, though they could not conceive what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by conſidering, that, if the earth did not move round

the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Now, as philoſophers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to judge pretty nearly of the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, juſt as every one that knows the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple or any object placed on it; it appeared that if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception; whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in the twenty-four hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a bowling green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way; and that the earth, in the ſpace of 24 hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, the inhabitants on the ſurface, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time, in which they, with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us to form a notion of its annual motion round the ſun; for as that luminary ſeems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, ſo, in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it completes in a year. Now as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

THE PLANETS.] Thus much being premiſed with regard to the motion of the earth, which the ſmalleſt reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, we muſt obſerve, before exhibiting our table, that, beſide the ſeven planets already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are thirteen other bodies which move round four of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, Saturn has ſix (one of theſe having been lately diſcovered by Dr. Herſchel), and the Georgium Sidus has two, as that excellent aſtronomer has ſhewn. Theſe are called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was firſt attended to: and ſometimes they are called *ſecondary* planets, becauſe they ſeem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

There are but two obſervations more, neceſſary for underſtanding the following table. They are theſe: we have already ſaid that the annual motion of the earth occaſioned the diverſity of ſeaſons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit; becauſe then the ſame parts of the earth would be turned towards the ſun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons, ariſing from the difference in length of the days and nights. This, therefore, is not the caſe—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by ſuppoſing a ſpindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the ſpindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards ſome quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the ſpindle to the ground. The ſame obſervation applies to ſome of the other planets, as may be ſeen from the table. It now remains, to conſider what is meant by the *mean diſtances* of the planets from

from the ſun. In order to underſtand this, we muſt learn that the path which a planet deſcribes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the ſhape of a figure called an ellipſis, which, though reſembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the ſame planet is not always at the ſame diſtance from the ſun, and the mean diſtance of it is that which is exactly betwixt its greateſt and leaſt diſtance. Here follows the table.

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the ſeveral Planets in the Solar Syſtem.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in Engliſh Miles.	Mean diſtances from the ſun determined from obſervations of the tranſit of Venus in 1761.	Annual periods round the ſun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
				d. h. m.			
Sun	890,000		y. d. h.	25 6 0		3,818	8° 0′
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown.	109,699	unknown.	unknown.
Venus	7,906	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75° 0′
Earth	7,979	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23° 29′
Moon	2,180	ditto	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2° 10′
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0° 0′
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0° 0′
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	29 167 6	unknown.	22,101	unknown.	unknown.

The Georgian planet (or Georgium Sidus) having greatly excited the attention of the learned world, it would be unpardonable in a work of this nature to omit giving the reader a brief account of it; which we ſhall draw from the beſt authority. It was diſcovered by Dr. William Herſchel, in the year 1781; for which he obtained from the Royal Society the honorary recompence of ſir Godfrey Copley's medal. The name given to it is in honour of his majeſty King George III. who has taken Dr. Herſchel into his patronage, and granted to him an annual ſalary. The editor of the laſt edition of Chambers's Dictionary (the Rev. Dr. Rees) having been favoured with an account of this planet from the ingenious diſcoverer, we give an extract from that work. "From many calculations of our beſt aſtronomers, and mathematicians, ſays Dr. Herſchel, I have collected the following particulars, as moſt to be depended upon.

Place of the node	— — —	2ˢ 11ᵈ 49′ 30″
Inclination of the orbit	— — —	43′ 35″
Place of the perihelion	— — —	172ᵈ 13′ 17″
Time of the perihelion paſſage	— —	Sept. 7, 1799
Eccentricity of the orbit	.82034	
Half the greater axis	19.07904	
Revolution —	83.3364	ſiderial ſtars.

"From my own obſervations on this planet's apparent diameter, which I have found cannot well be leſs than 4″, nor indeed much greater, we infer that its real diameter is to that of the earth, as 4.454 to 1; and hence it appears to be of very conſiderable bulk, and, except Saturn and Jupiter, by far the largeſt of the remaining planets. Its light is of a bluiſh-white colour, and its brilliancy between that of the moon and of Venus. With a teleſcope which magnifies about three hundred times, it appears to have a very well defined viſible diſk; but with inſtruments of a ſmall power, it can hardly be diſtinguiſhed from a fixed ſtar of between the ſixth and ſeventh magnitude. In a very fine clear night, when the moon is abſent, it may alſo be ſeen by the naked eye."

On the 11th January, 1787, Dr. Herſchel diſcovered two ſatellites belonging to this planet.

THE COMETS.] The reader having obtained an idea of the Planets from the table in the foregoing page and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his reflection to the Comets, which, as they revolve round our Sun, are a part of the ſolar ſyſtem. Theſe, deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurpriſe us with the ſingular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. Though ſome of the ancients had more juſt notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to thoſe we ſee in it every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to record their phænomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are ſolid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the ſun in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of a much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated in every period to ſuch a degree as would vitrify any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is believed that there are at leaſt 21 comets belonging to our ſyſtem, moving in all directions; and all thoſe which have been obſerved have moved through the etherial regions and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering any ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions, which proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years: that which appeared in 1680 is the moſt remarkable; its greateſt diſtance is about 11 thouſand 200 millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the centre of the ſun is about 490 thouſand miles; within leſs than one third part of the ſun's ſemidiameter from his ſurface. In that part of its orbit, which is neareſt to the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, conſequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace, naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination, the vaſt diſtance between our ſun, and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically and go round the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to thoſe of ſir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit; but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for it may be obſerved, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: ſo that, in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable, if not fatal effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, M'Laurin, Derham, Ferguſon, and Whiſton.

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly ſurveyed the ſolar ſyſtem, which, though great in itſelf, is ſmall in compariſon with the immenſity of the univerſe, we next proceed to the contemplation of thoſe other vaſt bodies called the *fixed Stars*; which being of infinite uſe in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. Theſe fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo ſmall, that the interpoſition

interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar, and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other, as the planets, from what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing their's. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed ſtars that are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night, without moonſhine, they ſeem to be innumerable, which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner; yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can be ſeen at a time, by the bare eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the introduction of teleſcopes, indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered as amazing; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſtead, late royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars. Theſe are called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of that inſtrument. Dr. Herſchel, to whoſe ingenuity and aſſiduity the aſtronomical world is ſo much indebted, has evinced what great diſcoveries may be made by improvements in the inſtruments of obſervation. In ſpeaking here of his diſcoveries, I ſhall uſe the words of M. de la Lande. "In paſſing rapidly over the heavens with his new teleſcope, the univerſe increaſed under his eye; 44,000 ſtars, ſeen in the ſpace of a few degrees, ſeem to indicate that there were ſeventy-five millions in the heavens." But what are all theſe, when compared to thoſe that fill the whole expanſe, the boundleſs fields of æther. Indeed the immenſity of the univerſe muſt contain ſuch numbers, as would exceed the utmoſt ſtretch of the human imagination; for who can ſay how far the univerſe extends, or point out thoſe limits, where the Creator ſtayed "his rapid wheels" or where he "fixed the golden compaſſes!"

The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and one another, is of all conſiderations the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 162 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 162 millions of miles farther removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſtantly the largeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of theſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun; and as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. The motion of light, therefore, which though ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us, than we do in making a Weſt-India voyage. A ſound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars, being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have; nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us; for the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as

to render theſe objects viſible by reflection. The ſtars therefore ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each ſtar, as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is plain that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is not probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from one another, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy*, and a mean opinion of the Divine Wiſdom; ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, *that* ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed, by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſea-ſhore. The ſpace they poſſeſs being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarcely be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although the Georgium Sidus, the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions many thouſand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus; and yet, at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars; as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the ſun's attraction.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded, that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants; for although there is almoſt an infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole!

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from one another, as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes that the ſun is; each to beſtow light, heat, and vegetation on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What an auguſt! what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thouſands of thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity.

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole.

THE CONSTELLATIONS.] The *firſt people* who paid much attention to the fixed ſtars, were the *ſhepherds* in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon; who, partly from amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in their travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, each of which

* Eſpecially ſince there are many ſtars which are not viſible without the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope; and, therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world they can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

they

they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in our own country do the ſame; for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation, which philoſophers call the Urſa Major, by the name of the Plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent with a very little help from the fancy. But the conſtellations in general have preſerved the names which were given them by the ancients; and they are reckoned 21 *northern*, and 12 *ſouthern:* but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern to 36, and of the ſouthern to 32. Beſide theſe, there are the 12 *ſigns* or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word ſignifying an animal, becauſe each of theſe 12 repreſents ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time, we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe, progreſs, and revolutions in aſtronomy.

Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live was not immoveable. We find accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about 580 years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had calculated eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon between the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the ſun and the moon (the nature of which may be eaſily underſtood, from what we have already obſerved.) Pythagoras, a Greek philoſopher, flouriſhed about 50 years after Thales, and was equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way, to give a conſiſtent account of the heavenly motions. This ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to common prejudices, that it never made great progreſs, nor was ever widely diffuſed. The philoſophers of antiquity, deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, endeavoured to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the caſe with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed 138 years before Chriſt. He ſuppoſed, with the vulgar, that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the cryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, laſtly, the cœlum empyrium, or heaven of heavens. All theſe orbs he ſuppoſed to move round the earth once in 24 hours; beſides moving in certain ſtated or periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he ſuppoſed a number of circles, called excentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with one another. This ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the Peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean, or true ſyſtem of the univerſe; and publiſhed it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had been ſo long in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe was ſtill immerſed in ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with thoſe of a refined philoſophy. This occaſioned Copernicus to have many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, ſenſible of the defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about 1586, to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem, which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and it makes the ſun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, how-

ever, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem, notwithſtanding its abſurdity, met with its advocates. Longomontanus, and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of many ages, the dawn of learning and taſte appeared in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which afforded new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy had almoſt checked this flouriſhing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem, as a damnable hereſy. The Reformation, however, placed a great part of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the ſcriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a nobler purpoſe, to make us virtuous and humane: that inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which in ſpeaking of natural things ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time, therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called *Gravity*, or *Attraction*, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder.

SECT. II.

Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the Doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to be premiſed before that of the Globe or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next Section. In diſcuſſing this ſubject, we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions round it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears that it is the *real* motion of the earth which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes. The imagination, therefore, is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar, and, in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to *.

The ancients obſerved, that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours; that the circles, which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth, being the largeſt, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved that there were two points in the heavens, which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to turn round them. In order to imitate

* N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere.

theſe motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whoſe extremities were fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They farther obſerved, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle deſcribed by the ſun was at an equal diſtance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, muſt divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was alſo called the *Equinoctial Line*, becauſe the ſun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having alſo obſerved that from the 21ſt of June to the 22d of December, the ſun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence he ſet out, from the 22d of December to the 21ſt of June: they fixed *theſe points*, which they called *Solſtices*, becauſe the direct motion of the ſun was ſtopped at them and repreſented the bounds of the ſun's motion, by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, becauſe the ſun no ſooner arrived there than he turned back. Aſtronomers obſerving the motion of the ſun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it paſſes through certain conſtellations, diſtinguiſhed by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one ſide, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely at an angle of 23 degrees 29 minutes, the ſun's greateſt declination. To expreſs this motion, they ſuppoſed two points in the heavens, equally diſtant from, and parallel to, this circle, which they call the *Poles* of the Zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, deſcribe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial ſphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called *Colures*, which ſerve to mark the points of the ſolſtices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients alſo obſerved, that when the ſun was in any point of his courſe, the people inhabiting directly north and ſouth, as far as the poles, have noon at the ſame time. This gave occaſion to imagine a circle paſſing through the poles of the world which they called a *Meridian*, and is immoveable in the artificial ſphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle repreſenting the bounds betwixt the two hemiſpheres, or half ſpheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

SECT. III.

The Doctrine of the GLOBE naturally follows that of the SPHERE.

BY the Doctrine of the GLOBE is meant the repreſentation of the different places and countries of the earth, upon an artificial globe. The manner in which geographers have repreſented the ſituation of one place with regard to another, or to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the ſphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to aſtronomers, there was nothing more eaſy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the ſituation of places was determined, according as they lay on one ſide of the equator or another. The ſame may be obſerved of the other circles of the ſphere. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded, may proceed to conſider this doctrine itſelf, or, in other words, the deſcription of our earth, as repreſented by the *artificial globe*.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though in ſpeaking of the earth, along with the other planets, it was ſufficient to conſider it as a ſpherical or globular body; yet it has been diſcovered, that this is not its true figure, and that the earth, though nearly a ſphere or ball, is not perfectly ſo. This occaſioned great diſpute between the philoſophers of the laſt age, among whom ſir Iſaac Newton, and Caſſini, a French

aſtronomer, were the heads of two parties. Sir Iſaac demonſtrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate ſphere*, or that it was flatted at the poles, and jutted out towards the equator; ſo that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and paſſing through the poles, which is called a *Diameter*, would not be ſo long as a line drawn through the ſame centre, and paſſing through the eaſt and weſt points. The French philoſopher aſſerted the contrary. But the diſpute was terminated by the French king, in 1736, who ſent out a company of philoſophers towards the north pole, and likewiſe towards the equator, in order to meaſure a degree, or the three hundred and ſixtieth part of a great circle in theſe different parts; and from their report, the opinion of ſir Iſaac Newton was confirmed beyond diſpute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been conſidered as more flat towards the poles than the equator. The reaſon of this figure may be eaſily underſtood, if the reader comprehends what we obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion; for if we fix a ball of clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. This is exactly the caſe with regard to our earth, only that its axis, repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe, without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the table which we have exhibited, the diameter of the globe is given, according to the beſt obſervations: ſo that its circumference is 25,038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of meaſuring, to be divided into three hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and an half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The Axis of the Earth is that imaginary line paſſing through its centre, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the Earth; one in the north, and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles is of great uſe to the geographer in determining the diſtance and ſituation of places; for the poles mark the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; ſo that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and, in removing from the poles, he approaches the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] Theſe are commonly divided into the *greater* and *leſſer*. A great circle is that whoſe plane paſſes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres. A leſſer circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot paſs through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are *ſix* in number, the leſſer *four*.

EQUATOR.] The firſt *great circle* we ſhall ſpeak of is the *Equator*, which we have had occaſion to hint at already. It is called ſometimes the *Equinoctial*, the reaſon of which we have explained; and by navigators it is alſo called the *Line*, becauſe, according to their rude notions, they believed it to be a great Line drawn upon the ſea from eaſt to weſt, dividing the earth into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and which they were actually to paſs in ſailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the ſame with thoſe of the world. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It is divided it into three hundred and ſixty degrees, the uſe of which will ſoon appear.

HORIZON.] *This great circle* is repreſented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompaſſing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemiſpheres. Geographers properly diſtinguiſh the horizon into the *ſenſible* and *rational*. The firſt is that

that which bounds the utmoſt proſpect of our ſight, when we view the heavens around us *apparently* touching the earth or ſea.

This circle determines the riſing or ſetting of the ſun and ſtars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eaſtern edge, we ſay they riſe, and when they go beneath the weſtern, we ſay they are ſet. It appears then that each place has its own *ſenſible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompaſſes the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is two points in its axis, each ninety degrees diſtant from its plane, as thoſe of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*; the firſt exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which repreſents it on the globe, has ſeveral circles drawn upon it: of theſe the innermoſt is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve ſigns of the Zodiac, viz. thirty to each ſign. Next to this, you have the names of theſe ſigns, with the days of the month, according to the old and new ſtyle. Beſides theſe, there is a circle repreſenting the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compaſs.

MERIDIAN.] *This circle* is repreſented by the *braſs ring*, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; ſo that counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, becauſe when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of it, it is then mid-day, and the ſun has its greateſt altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the ſun is never in its meridian altitude at two places eaſt or weſt of one another at the ſame time, each of theſe places muſt have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.] The Zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve ſigns above mentioned are repreſented. In the middle of this circle is ſuppoſed the *Ecliptic*, from which the ſun never deviates in his annual courſe, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve ſigns are,

1. Aries ♈ — — March	7. Libra ♎ — — September
2. Taurus ♉ — — April	8. Scorpio ♏ — — October
3. Gemini ♊ — — May	9. Sagittarius ♐ — — November
4. Cancer ♋ — — June	10. Capricorn ♑ — — December
5. Leo ♌ — — July	11. Aquarius ♒ — — January
6. Virgo ♍ — — Auguſt	12. Piſces ♓ — — February.

COLURES.] If you imagine *two great circles* paſſing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the ſolſtitial points Cancer and Capricorn, theſe are called the Colures, the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solſtitial Colure. Theſe divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are denominated according to the points which theſe paſs through, viz. the four cardinal points, and are the firſt points of Aries, Libra, Cancer, and Capricorn; and theſe are all the *great circles*.

TROPICS.] If you ſuppoſe two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes diſtance from it, meaſured on the brazen meridian, and one towards the north, the other towards the ſouth, theſe are called Tropics, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through theſe points.

POLAR CIRCLES.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The *northern* is called the *Arctic*, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear; the *ſouthern* the *Ant-*

arctic, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the *four leſſer circles*. Beſides theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others, which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it. Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time, without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The main deſign of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus, after it was diſcovered, that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed, according as they lay on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator.

ZONES.] After the four leſſer circles we have mentioned came to be known, it was found that the earth by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called Zones, from the Greek word ζωνη, which ſignifies a girdle; being broad ſpaces, like ſwathes, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid* becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſarts. This notion, however, has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls than all the reſt of the earth. This Zone comprehends the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Philippine Iſlands, thoſe of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Madagaſcar, greater part of South America and Africa, and almoſt all captain Cook's diſcoveries, including the northern parts of New Holland.

The *frigid zones* are thoſe regions round the pole, where the ſun does not riſe for ſome days in the winter, nor ſet for ſome days in the ſummer. The two poles are the centres of theſe zones, which extend from theſe points to twenty three degrees, and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and ſouthern parallels of latitude of ſixty-ſix degrees and a half. The part that lies in the northern hemiſphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel, called the arctic or polar circle; and that in the ſouthern hemiſphere, the ſouth frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or polar circle.

The northern *frigid zone* comprehends Nova Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's Bay, part of Greenland, and part of Siberia. The ſouthern *frigid zone* has no land known to us; and from the obſervations of captain Cook, who in the years 1772, 1773, 1774, and 1775, reſolved the great problem of a ſouthern continent, we have reaſon to think that there is no land belonging to the ſouthern frigid zone. That great navigator having traverſed the ſouthern hemiſphere between the latitudes of 40° and 70°, in ſuch a manner as not to leave a poſſibility of the exiſtence of any continent, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation.

The *two temperate zones* are the ſpaces contained between the tropics and polar circles.

The *northern* temperate zone contains almoſt all Europe, the greater part of Aſia, part of Africa, the united States of America, and the Britiſh Colonies.

The *ſouthern* temperate zone comprehends the ſouth part of New Holland (including Botany Bay) Cape of Good Hope, and Cape Horn.

CLIMATES.] The diviſions of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may

be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the diſtances between one place and another. This, however, is ſtill more neceſſary; becauſe it is of more importance to mankind, to know the ſituation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what are called Climates. It was obſerved, that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the longeſt day increaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the *Latitude* of the place, from the greateſt length of the day from the place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator. And as they called the ſpace contained between theſe circles, Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called *Climatical parallels*. This therefore was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe; though, as we ſhall ſhew, the deſign which firſt introduced it, may be better anſwered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt 24, the days increaſe by half hours; but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the poles, the days increaſe by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe: in the mean time we ſhall inſert a table which will ſerve to ſhew in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator to be known.

Cli.	Latitude. D.	M.	Breadth. D.	M.	Long. Day. H.	M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places ſituated in every Climate, north of the Equator.
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the firſt Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coaſts in Africa; Malacca in the Eaſt-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, S. America.
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here lie Abyſſinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry, in the Eaſt Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent and Barbadoes in the W. Indies.
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal in the Eaſt-Indies; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, St. Chriſtopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, in the Weſt-Indies.
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Iſlands, in Africa; Delly, capital of the Mogul Empire in Aſia; Gulf of Mexico, and Eaſt Florida, in North America; the Havanna, in the Weſt Indies,
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean ſea; the Barbary coaſt, in Africa; Jeruſalem; Iſpahan, capital of Perſia; Nankin, in China; California, New Mexico, Weſt Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41	22	4	54	15		VI. Liſbon in Portugal; Madrid in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Aſia Minor; part of the Caſpian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin in China; Corea and Japan; Williamſburgh, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in North America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; Southern ditto of France: Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Conſtantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caſpian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boſton in New England, North America.
8	49	01	3	32	16		VIII. Paris, Vienna capital of Germany; New-Scotland, Newfoundland, and Canada, in North America.
9	52	00	2	57	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dreſden; Cracow in Poland; ſouthern provinces of Ruſſia; part of Tartary; North part of Newfoundland.
10	54	27	2	29	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warſaw, in Poland; Labrador, and New South-Wales, in North America.
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moſcow capital of Ruſſia.
12	58	29	1	52	18		XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolſki, capital of Siberia.
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Iſles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden.

14	61	18	1 20	19		XIV. Bergen in Norway; Peterſburgh in Ruſſia.
15	62	25	1 7	19	30	XV. Hudſon's Straits, North America.
16	63	22	57	20		XVI. Siberia, and the ſouth part of Weſt Greenland.
17	64	06	44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64	49	43	21		XVIII. Part of Finland, in Ruſſia.
19	65	21	32	21	30	XIX. Archangel on the White Sea, Ruſſia.
20	65	47	22	22		XX. Hecla in Iceland.
21	66	06	19	22	30	XXI. Northern parts of Ruſſia and Siberia.
22	66	20	14	23		XXII. New North Wales, in North America.
23	66	28	8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's Straits, in North America.
24	66	31	3	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67	21		1	Month	XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48		2	Months	XXVI. Weſt-Greenland.
27	73	37		3	Months	XXVII. Zembla Auſtralis.
28	78	30		4	Months	XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	05		5	Months	XXIX. Spitzbergen or Eaſt Greenland.
30	90			6	Months	XXX. Unknown.

LATITUDE.] The diſtance of places from the equator, or what is called their *Latitude*, is eaſily meaſured on the globe by means of the meridian above deſcribed. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, a place on the northern ſide of the equator is ſaid to be in north latitude, and a place on the ſouthern ſide is in ſouth latitude. The nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, becauſe the poles where they terminate, are at that diſtance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers ſuppoſe a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The interſection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, ſhews the true ſituation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The *longitude* of a place is its ſituation with regard to its meridian, and conſequently reckoned towards the eaſt or weſt: in reckoning the longitude there is no particular ſpot from which we ought to ſet out preferably to another; but for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the moſt weſterly of the Canary Iſlands, was conſidered as the firſt meridian in moſt of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be ſo many degrees eaſt or weſt of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes fix the firſt meridian, from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, in the capital city of the different kingdoms where they are made, viz. the Engliſh globes date the firſt meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes from Paris, &c. The degrees of longitude are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, becauſe, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that diſtance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like thoſe of latitude, but diminiſh in proportion as the meridians incline, or their diſtance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and ſo of the reſt. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are exhibited in the following table.

A TABLE

A TABLE ſhewing the Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	16	57	60	31	51	43	46	41	68	61	29	04	76	14	51
2	59	94	17	57	30	32	50	88	47	41	00	62	28	17	77	13	50
3	59	92	18	57	04	33	50	32	48	40	15	63	27	24	78	12	48
4	59	86	19	56	73	34	49	74	49	39	36	64	26	30	79	11	45
5	59	77	20	56	38	35	49	15	50	38	57	65	25	36	80	10	42
6	59	67	21	56	00	36	48	54	51	37	73	66	24	41	81	09	38
7	59	56	22	55	63	37	47	92	52	37	00	67	23	45	82	08	35
8	59	40	23	55	23	38	47	28	53	36	18	68	22	48	83	07	32
9	59	20	24	54	81	39	46	62	54	35	26	69	21	51	84	06	28
10	59	08	25	54	38	40	46	00	55	34	41	70	20	52	85	05	23
11	58	89	26	54	00	41	45	28	56	33	55	71	19	54	86	04	18
12	58	68	27	53	44	42	44	95	57	32	67	72	18	55	87	03	14
13	58	46	28	53	00	43	43	88	58	31	79	73	17	54	88	02	09
14	58	22	29	52	48	44	43	16	59	30	90	74	16	53	89	01	05
15	58	00	30	51	96	45	42	43	60	30	00	75	15	52	90	00	00

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE ON THE ARTIFICIAL GLOBE FOUND.] To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we ſhall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that, to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of theſe degrees into miles, according to the table above given, and, remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or 69½ Engliſh, we ſhall be able to determine the diſtance between any places on the globe.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The diſtances of places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly ſouth, north, eaſt, nor weſt, from one another, may be meaſured in a readier way, by extending the compaſſes from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For inſtance, extend the compaſſes from Guinea in Africa, to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the diſtance to be 25 degrees, which at 60 miles to a degree, makes the diſtance 1500 miles.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to ſupply the place of the compaſſes in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of braſs, ſcrewed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the diſtances and bearings of places are meaſured without the trouble of firſt extending the compaſſes between them, and then applying the ſame to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a ſmall braſs circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROB. 1. *THE diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its ſurface in ſquare, and its ſolidity in cubic meaſure.*

Multiply the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the

ſaid product by one ſixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and every where at the ſame height; for having found the perpendicular height thereof, by that common experiment of the aſcent of mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, then double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter by its proper circumference, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude, then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituated, as that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing their variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this, ſee above.

PROB. 4. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the chalk is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The latitude of any place being given, to find all thoſe places that have the ſame latitude.*

The globe being rectified (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

(*a*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon, and over-againſt the day you will find the particular ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time, which ſign and degree being noted on the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The month and day being given, as alſo the particular time of that day, to find thoſe places of the globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. which done, fix the globe at that ſituation, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian, for thoſe are the places deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

Elevate the pole (*b*) according to the latitude of the given place; find the Sun's place in the ecliptic (*c*) at that time, which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and whereſoever the index points, reckon the number of hours between the ſame and the upper figure of XII. for that is the length of the day, the compliment whereof to 24 hours is the length of the night.

(*b*) PROB. 2.
(*c*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 9.

PROB. 9. *To know what o'clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the ſame time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raiſed (*a*) according to the latitude thereof, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the preſent hour at that place wherever it is.

(*a*) PROB. 3.

PROB. 10. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find thoſe two days of the year in which the ſun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the ſun's annual motion) on what days he paſſeth through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic, for thoſe are the days required in which the ſun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The month and the day being given, to find by the globe thoſe places of the North Frigid Zone, where the ſun begins then to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting: as alſo thoſe places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.*

The day given (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the autumnal equinox and winter ſolſtice), find (*b*) the ſun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the ſun's place in the ecliptic, ſetting a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the ſaid chalk are thoſe in which the ſun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north, then marking with chalk, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark are thoſe where the ſun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

(*b*) PRO. 6.

PROB. 12. *A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the ſun conſtantly ſhines upon that place, and what days he is abſent, as alſo the firſt and laſt day of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and obſerving its latitude (*c*) elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian from each ſide of the equator as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; firſt for the northern arch of the circle, namely that comprehended between the two degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the ſun conſtantly ſhines above the horizon of the given place; and the oppoſite arch of that circle will give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point out which days thoſe are. In the interval he will riſe and ſet.

(*c*) PRO. 2.

PROB. 13. *The month and day being given, to find thoſe places on the globe, to which the ſun, when on the meridian, ſhall be vertical on that day.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic being (*d*) found, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, in which make a ſmall mark with chalk, exactly above the ſun's place. Which done, turn the globe, and thoſe places which have the ſun vertical in the meridian will ſucceſſively paſs under the ſaid mark.

(*d*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 14. *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compaſs the ſun then riſes and ſets in any place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and, finding the ſun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and you may there clearly ſee the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſes. By turning the globe till his place coincide with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon that circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the globe the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt days and nights in any part of the world.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer if in the northern, or Capricorn if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe till the ſide of Cancer touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index, for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement whereof is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. The ſhorteſt day and longeſt night are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16. *The hour of the day being given in any place, to find thoſe places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour at the ſame time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and what places are then in the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index point at the hour deſired, and obſerving the places then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The day and hour being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the ſun is vertical at that time.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic *(a)* being found and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the ſame with chalk; then *(b)* find thoſe places of the earth in whoſe meridian the ſun is at that inſtant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, obſerve narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforeſaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the ſun is vertical at that time.

(a) PROB. 9.
(b) PROB. 16.

PROB. 18. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all thoſe places where the ſun is then riſing, or ſetting, or on the meridian; conſequently, all thoſe places which are enlightened at that time, and thoſe which are in the dark.*

This problem cannot be ſolved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the braſs-meridian; unleſs the ſun be on or near ſome of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joſeph Harris's invention, where the hour-circle lies on the ſurface of the globe, below the meridian, it may be ſolved for any day in the year, according to his method; which is as follows.

Having found the place to which the ſun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemiſphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the

ſouthern hemiſphere, elevate the ſouth pole accordingly; and bring the place to the brazen meridian. Then, all thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon have the ſun riſing to them at that time; and thoſe in the eaſtern ſemicircle have it ſetting: to thoſe under the upper ſemicircle of the braſs meridian, it is noon; and to thoſe under the lower ſemicircle, it is midnight. All thoſe places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the ſun, and have the ſun juſt as many degrees above them, as they themſelves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the ſun is vertical; and then, laying it over any other place, obſerve what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe that are 18 degrees below the ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all thoſe that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour-index be ſet to the upper XII. or noon, and then the globe be turned eaſtward on its axis; when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-riſing at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-ſet.

To thoſe places which do not go under the horizon, the ſun ſets not on that day; and to thoſe which do not come above it the ſun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The month and day being given, with the place of the moon in the zodiac and her true latitude, to find thereby the exact hour when ſhe ſhall riſe and ſet, together with her ſouthing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

The moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily at any time by an almanac; and her latitude, which is her diſtance from the ecliptic, by applying the ſemicircle of poſition to her place in the zodiac. For the ſolution of the problem (*a*), elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and the ſun's place in the ecliptic at that time being (*b*) found and marked with chalk, as alſo the moon's place at the ſame, bring the ſun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, then turn the globe till the moon's place ſucceſſively meet with the eaſtern and weſtern ſide of the horizon, as alſo the brazen meridian, and the index will point at thoſe times, the particular hours of her riſing, ſetting, and ſouthing.

(*a*) PROB. 2.
(*b*) PROB. 6.

PROB. 20. *Two places being given on the globe, to find the true diſtance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true diſtance from each other, reckoning every degree to be 69½ Engliſh miles.

PROB. 21. *A place being given on the globe, and its true diſtance from a ſecond place, to find thereby all other places of the earth of the ſame diſtance from the given place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of that place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon upon that quadrant the given diſtance between the firſt and ſecond place, provided the ſame be under 90 degrees, otherwiſe you muſt uſe the ſemicircle of poſition, and marking where the reckoning ends, and moving the quadrant round upon the ſurface of the globe, all places paſſing under that mark are thoſe deſired.

Methods for finding the LATITUDES *and* LONGITUDES *of Places from* CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.

It being a matter of vaſt importance to Navigators to know the ſituation of any unknown place they may touch at, or in whatever part of the ocean they may be, and this being only to be diſcovered by aſcertaining the latitude and longitude of the ſaid place, the methods of finding them are here pointed out.

I. OF FINDING THE LATITUDE.] As the latitude of a place is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the viſible pole above the horizon, it follows that if the meridional altitude, or its complement, the zenith diſtance of any celeſtial object, whoſe place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is eaſily diſcovered. Thus if the heavenly object be in the equinoctial, the zenith diſtance will be equal to the latitude, which will be either north or ſouth, according as the obſerver is ſituated either to the northward or ſouthward of the object. But if the ſun or ſtar hath either north or ſouth declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or ſouthward of the equinoctial, the declination muſt either be ſubtracted from, or added to the zenith diſtance, according as the zenith diſtance and declination are of the ſame or different denominations. The method is this.

1. Obſerve by a quadrant the meridional diſtance of the ſun from the zenith, which is always the complement of his meridian altitude; correct for the DIP of the horizon, and REFRACTION; and add to this the ſun's declination, when the ſun and the place are on the ſame ſide of the equator; or ſubtract the declination, when they are of different ſides; the ſum in the former caſe, and the difference in the latter, will be the *latitude* required. But when the declination of the ſun is greater than the latitude of the place, which is known from the ſun's being nearer to the elevated pole, than the zenith of the place is, as it frequently happens in the torrid zone, then the difference between the ſun's declination, and his zenith diſtance, is the *latitude* of the place.

If the ſun or ſtar have no declination, but move in the equinoctial that day, then the elevation of the equator will be equal to his meridional altitude, and conſequently his meridional altitude is the complement of the *latitude* to 90. This method is beſt accommodated to the uſes of navigation, as being practicable at ſea; but for obſervations at land, another method may be pointed out.

2. The altitude of the pole, it has been already ſhewn, is always equal to the *latitude*; for which reaſon the *latitude* might be beſt found by obſerving the pole's height; but as the pole is only a mathematical point, and no ways to be obſerved by our ſenſes, its height cannot be determined in the ſame manner as that of the ſun and ſtars, &c. for which reaſon another manner has been contrived.

In order to this, a meridian line is firſt drawn. Place a quadrant on this line, ſo that its plane may be in the plane of the meridian; then take ſome ſtar near the pole, v. gr. the pole-ſtar (which never ſets), and obſerve both its greateſt, and leaſt altitude: half of the difference deducted from the greateſt altitude, or added to the leaſt, will give the altitude of the pole above the horizon, which is equal to the latitude of the place.

II. OF FINDING THE LONGITUDE.] To diſcover an exact method of finding the *longitude* at ſea, is a problem that has extremely perplexed the mathematicians of theſe two laſt ages; and for the ſolution of which, great rewards have been publicly offered by the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, this being almoſt the only thing wanting to render navigation perfect.

In the year 1598, Philip the Third, King of Spain, offered a reward of 1000 crowns for the ſolution of this problem; this noble example was followed by the States

States General, who offered 10,000 florins. In 1635, John Morrin, profeſſor of mathematics at Paris, propoſed a method of reſolving it to Cardinal Richlieu; though the commiſſioners, who were appointed to examine this method, judged it inſufficient, on account of the imperfection of the lunar tables. Cardinal Mazarin, in 1645, procured for him a penſion of 2000 livres. In 1714 an act was paſſed by the Britiſh parliament, appointing and impowering certain commiſſioners to make out a bill for a ſum not exceeding 2000l. towards making neceſſary experiments; and alſo granting a reward of 10,000l. to the perſon who ſhould determine the *longitude* at ſea, to one degree of a great circle, or 60 geographical miles; 15,000l. if the longitude be determined to two-thirds of that diſtance; and 20,000l. if it be determined to half that diſtance.

It ſhould be obſerved that the difference of longitude between any two places, might be determined, by knowing the difference between the times that any remarkable appearance in the heavens was ſeen in thoſe places. For ſince the ſun and fixed ſtars appear to move round the earth, or, which is the ſame thing, the earth revolves about its axis in twenty-four hours; it follows, that in every hour there paſſes over the meridian one twenty-fourth part of 360 degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to 15 degrees; and a proportional part in a greater or leſſer time.

The heavenly bodies afford frequent opportunies of making obſervations of this kind. For as theſe appearances conſiſt in the appulſes, that is, the approaches of the heavenly bodies to one another, or their paſſing by one another; and theſe appulſes, when they happen, are ſeen at the ſame inſtant of abſolute time in all parts of the earth where they are viſible: therefore by knowing the relative times of the day, when ſuch appearances are ſeen in two diſtant places, the difference between thoſe times is known, and conſequently the difference of longitude between thoſe two places; always obſerving that for every hour of time you muſt allow 15 degrees of longitude either eaſt or weſt, according as the time is either ſooner or later than the time marked out for ſuch appearances to happen at Greenwich, for inſtance, from whence the firſt meridian commences.

Several ephemerides or almanacs are annually publiſhed, in which the times when the eclipſes of the ſun, moon, and Jupiter's ſatellites; the riſing, ſetting and ſouthing of the planets; the appulſes of the moon to certain fixed ſtars; and other celeſtial appearances, are determined with regard to ſome meridian. By the help of one of theſe books, and a careful obſervation of theſe appearances, the longitude may be determined.

Eclipſes of the moon, when they happen, afford one method of finding the difference of longitude. For as theſe eclipſes are occaſioned by an interpoſition of the earth between her and the ſun, and conſequently ſhe is immerſed in the earth's ſhadow, the moment any part of her body is deprived of the ſolar rays, it is viſible to all thoſe people who can ſee her, at the ſame inſtant of abſolute time. Hence, by obſerving the beginning, middle, or end of the eclipſe of the moon in any part of the world, noting the apparent time of theſe phænomena, and comparing it with the calculations of the ſame eclipſe adapted to ſome other meridian, the difference of time, and conſequently difference of longitude between thoſe two places, will be known.

Suppoſe for inſtance the beginning of an eclipſe of the moon happened at London ſixteen minutes after two in the morning, and at thirty-four minutes, twenty ſeconds after nine in the evening at Boſton in New England; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-one minutes, forty ſeconds, equal to ſeventy degrees, twenty-five minutes, the difference of longitude; and becauſe the time is leſs at Boſton, than at London, the difference of longitude will be weſt. Conſequently if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Boſton will be ſeventy degrees twenty-five minutes weſt.—See Ferguſon's Aſtronomy, ſixth edit. p. 122. Alſo White's Ephemeris for 1791. p. 37.

The

The longitude of places may alſo be obtained from the obſervations of ſolar eclipſes, but theſe being incumbered with the conſideration of parallaxes, are much leſs adapted to that purpoſe than thoſe of the moon.

But as the eclipſes of the ſun and moon happen but ſeldom, another expedient offers, viz. the eclipſes of Jupiter's ſatellites. That planet has four moons or ſatellites, moving round him at different diſtances, and in different intervals of time; one or more of which is eclipſed almoſt every night: for they diſappear either in going behind Jupiter, or in paſſing before him: and the inſtant of ſuch immerſions may be ſeen by a refracting teleſcope of about eight or nine feet long, or a reflecting one of nine inches focal length.

The paſſage of the moon, or the ſuperior planets over the meridian, affords another method of diſcovering the longitude; for by having the time in an ephemeris, when the moon or any of the planets paſs the meridian of ſome place, and finding by obſervation the time when the object paſſes the meridian of another place, the longitude will be determined; for the difference of time converted into degrees, &c. will give the difference of longitude.

There is ſtill another method, equally expeditious and certain, namely, the appulſes of the moon to certain fixed ſtars, and their occultations by reaſon of her body. For the moon finiſhing her revolution in twenty-ſeven days, ſeven hours, forty-three minutes, there are but few clear nights, when the moon does not paſs over, or ſo near ſome fixed ſtar, that the time of the neareſt approach or the viſible conjunction may be eaſily obſerved. Marking exactly the apparent time of theſe obſervations, and comparing that with the time of the place for which meridian they are calculated, will give you the difference of longitude between the two places.

It will be obvious to every reflecting reader, that many of the above obſervations being to be made by a teleſcope, the conſtant motion of a ſhip under ſail, will render it impoſſible to make them at ſea, with any ſufficient accuracy. To remedy this inconvenience Mr. Chriſtopher Irvin invented what he calls a marine chair. This chair was tried by Mr. Maſkelyne, in his voyage to Barbadoes, who found it totally impracticable to derive any advantage from it. And beſides, ſince all methods, which depend upon the phænomena of the heavens, have alſo this other defect, that they cannot be obſerved at all times, it became a great deſideratum in navigation to diſcover ſome other method of aſcertaining the longitude at ſea.

It is well known that if a time-keeper could be made with ſufficient accuracy, ſo as to keep exact time, by having ſuch a clock or watch on board, the longitude might be eaſily determined; for by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing it with the time then ſhewn by ſuch a machine, the difference of longitude between thoſe places will be determined. The ingenious Mr. Harriſon a few years ſince completed ſuch a time-keeper, which was found upon trial to anſwer even beyond the moſt ſanguine expectations; and he accordingly received ten thouſand pounds from the government, as a reward for his diſcovery; but for ſome reaſons, not generally known, the time-keeper has been hitherto kept from the public.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator, have no latitude, it being there that the

the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the firſt meridian interſects the equator, has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each, at all times of the year; for although the ſun declines alternately, from the equator towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial; for, in all the elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt), one half of the equator will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra; for, in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary; the circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heaven every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any one of theſe places, at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for, in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination), all theſe places will keep equally long above or below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For, there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches, and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the neareſt tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon, without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the fartheſt tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above the horizon. At all other times of the year he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe of all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon: and when the ſun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of theſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern tropic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern tropic; aud none ſo little above it, and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere, the contrary.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome

number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting; and at the oppoſite time of the year without riſing; becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole, theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward to the ſame port again, let her take what time ſhe will to do it in, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off a part proportionable to their own motion, from the length of every day they will gain a complete day of that ſort at their return; without gaining one moment of abſolute time more than is elapſed during their courſe, to the people at the port. If they ſail weſtward they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſaid port; becauſe, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above their horizon as anſwers to that day's courſe; and thereby they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the Earth are two, the *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmuſes, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents (beſides the iſlands) viz. the *eaſtern* and *weſtern* continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-weſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over), on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, 60 or 70 miles broad.

A *continent* is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, ſurrounded by water, as Great-Britain. A *peninſula* is a tract of land ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece: and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an *iſthmus*: as the iſthmus of Suez which joins Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the Cape of Good-hope. A *coaſt* or *ſhore* is that part of a country which borders on the ſea-ſide. Mountains, vallies, woods, deſerts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulphs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe), viz. the *Atlantic*, the *Pacific*, and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic Ocean divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is

3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The *ocean* is a great and ſpacious collection of water, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. The *ſea* is a ſmaller collection of water which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A *ſtrait* is a narrow part of the ſea, reſtrained or lying between two ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a *ſound*: as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it, except at the paſſage whereby it is communicated with the ſea or ocean. If a gulph be very large it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean; if it do not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*, as the Bay of Biſcay: if it be very ſmall, a *creek*, *haven*, *ſtation*, or *road* for ſhips, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription; for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, like thoſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of land and water we have deſcribed, it is proper to obſerve, that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them.

The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean. An iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulf or inland ſea. A promontory, or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of ſea. And an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined, reſembles a ſtrait which unites one ſea to another.

To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correſpond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial contents of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, which ſhall be placed as they are ſubordinate to one another in magnitude.

	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.	Islands.	Square Miles.
The Globe	148,510,627	Hifpaniola	30,000	Skye	900
Seas and unknown Parts	117,843,821	Newfoundland	35,500	Lewis	880
The Habitable World *	30,666,806	Ceylon	27,730	Funen	768
Europe	2,749,349	Ireland	27,457	Yvica	625
Afia	10,257,487	Formofa	17,000	Minorca	520
Africa	8,506,208	Anian	11,900	Rhodes	480
America	9,153,762	Gilolo	10,400	Cephalonia	420
Perfian Empire under Darius	1,650,000	Sicily	9400	Amboyna	400
Roman Empire in its utmoft height	1,610,000	Timor	7800	Orkney Pomona	324
Ruffian	3,376,485	Sardinia	6600	Scio	300
Chinefe	1,749,000	Cyprus	6300	Martinico	260
Great Mogul	1,116,000	Jamaica	6000	Lemnos	220
Turkifh	960,057	Flores	6000	Corfu	194
Britifh, exclufive of fettlements in Africa and Gibraltar	809,996				
Prefent Perfian	800,000	Ceram	5400	Providence	168
		Breton	4000	Man	160
Islands. Borneo	228,000	Socatra	3600	Bornholm	160
Madagafcar	168,000	Candia	3220	Wight	150
Sumatra	129,000	Porto Rico	3200	Malta	150
Japan	118,000	Corfica	2520	Barbadoes	140
Great Britain	72,926	Zealand	1935	Zant	120
Celebes	68,400	Majorca	1400	Antigua	100
Manilla	58,500	St. Jago	1400	St. Chriftopher's	80
Iceland	46,000	Negropont	1300	St. Helena	80
Terra del Fuego	42,075	Teneriff	1272	Guernfey	50
Mindinao	39,200	Gothland	1000	Jerfey	43
Cuba	38,400	Maderia	950	Bermudas	40
Java	38,250	St. Michael	920	Rhodes	36

To thefe iflands may be added the following, which have lately been difcovered, or more fully explored. The exact dimenfions of them are not afcertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, brginning at the largeft, which is fuppofed to be nearly equal in fize to the whole continent of Europe.

New Holland,
New Guinea,
New Zealand,
New Caledonia,
New Hebrides,
Otaheite, or King George's Ifland,
Friendly Iflands,
Marquefas,
Eafter, or Davis's Ifland.

We cannot finifh the doctrine of the earth, without confidering Winds and Tides, from which the changes that happen on its furface principally arife.

WINDS.] The earth is every where furrounded by a fine invifible fluid, which extends to feveral miles above its furface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a fmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, fo as to fill a very large fpace, or to be compreffed into a much fmaller compafs than it occupied before. The general caufe of the expanfion of air is heat, the general caufe of its compreffion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmofphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreffed. But when air is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general; and a breeze, gale, or ftorm, according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are commonly confidered as things extremely variable and uncer-

* The number of inhabitants computed at prefent to be in the known world at a medium, taken from the beft calculations, are about 953 millions.

Europe contains	153 Millions.
Afia	500
Africa	150
America	150
Total	953 Millions.

tain,

tain, depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that from thirty degrees north latitude to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the *Trade Wind*. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which, in moving from eaſt to weſt, heats, and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream or tide of air, always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan; which is to mention facts rather than theories.

It is likewiſe found, that in ſome parts of the Indian ocean, which are not more than two hundred leagues from land, there are periodical winds, called *Monſoons*, which blow half the year one way, and half the year another way. At the change of theſe monſoons, which always happens at the equinoxes, there are terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain. It is diſcovered alſo, that in the ſame latitudes, there is another kind of periodical winds, which blow from the land in the night and good part of the morning, and from the ſea about noon, till midnight: theſe, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows always from the weſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the winds blow conſtantly from the ſouth-weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great-Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape de Verd iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

TIDES.] By the *tides* are meant the regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the Tides remained in obſcurity till ſir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction; for having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw or attract one another, in proportion to their diſtance; it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are immediately below the moon, muſt be drawn towards it, and conſequently wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former; for, in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's center, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places, to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow, twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is, about the times of new and full moon, and are called *Spring Tides*: for at theſe times the actions of both the ſun and moon are united, and draw in the ſame ſtraight line, and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the

zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called *Neap Tides:* for in the quarters the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them; ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands, and continents, which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the ſituation of ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects, which have a ſhare in producing them.

CURRENTS.] There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the Ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from north to ſouth.

This is called the *Gulph-ſtream*, which is probably generated by the great accumulation of water on the eaſtern coaſt of America between the tropics, by the trade winds which conſtantly blow there. This vaſt quantity of water runs down in a ſtrong current through the Weſt India Iſlands into the bay of Mexico, and from thence iſſuing through the gulph of Florida, proceeds along the coaſts to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off towards, and runs down through the weſtern iſlands. From the thermometer it appears that it is always warmer than the ſea on each ſide of it. Nor is it to be wondered at, that ſo vaſt a body of deep warm water, ſeveral leagues wide, coming from between the tropics, and iſſuing thence into the northern ſeas, ſhould retain its warmth longer than the twenty or thirty days required to its paſſing the banks of Newfoundland. The quantity is too great, and it is too deep to be ſuddenly cooled by paſſing under a cooler air. The air immediately over it, however, may receive ſo much warmth from it as to be rarefied and riſe, being rendered lighter than the air on each ſide of the ſtream; hence thoſe airs muſt flow in to ſupply the place of the riſing warm air, and meeting with each other, form thoſe tornadoes and water-ſpouts frequently met with, and ſeen near and over the ſtream; and as the vapour from a cup of tea in a warm room, and the breath of an animal in the ſame room, are hardly viſible, but become ſenſible immediately when out in the cold air, ſo the vapour from the gulph-ſtream, in warm latitudes, is ſcarcely viſible, but when it comes into the cool air from Newfoundland, it is condenſed into the fogs for which thoſe parts are ſo remarkable.

The power of wind to raiſe water above its common level in the ſea, is known in America, by the high tides occaſioned in all their ſea-ports, when a ſtrong north-eaſter blows againſt the gulph-ſtream.

The concluſion from theſe remarks is, that as it muſt greatly impede a ſhip, which through ignorance is ſtemming this current that is againſt her to the value of three miles an hour, ſo a veſſel from Europe to North America may ſhorten her paſſage by avoiding to ſtem the ſtream, in which the thermometer will be uſeful: and a veſſel from America to Europe may do the ſame, by the ſame means of keeping in it *.

A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the Sound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel; ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean,

* The reader may ſee more upon this ſubject (extremely intereſting to mariners) in Dr. Franklin's Philoſophical Papers, where he will find a chart of this ſtream.

the

the tides riſe very little; but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

MAPS.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part of it, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth, but a map no more than a plane ſurface can repreſent one that is ſpherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of ſeveral, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall much ſhort of the globe for exactneſs; becauſe ſuch maps, if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand, oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from ſide to ſide, *parallels of latitude*. The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtance, &c. of places, may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes, or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which ſhows that London is 210 miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridian and parallels, and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is ſcarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this ſort of meaſure; not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary, in the different provinces, and all commonly from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile, and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries compared with the Engliſh by Dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.
The Ruſſian vorſt is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile is nearly 1 Engliſh.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ Engliſh.
The Scotch and Iriſh mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The Indian is almoſt three Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ Engliſh.
The German is more than 4 Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.
The French common league is near 3 Engliſh, and
The Engliſh marine league is 3 Engliſh miles.

PART II.

Of the Origin of NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, and COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work, mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even ſometimes, in ſpeaking of theſe countries, carried our hiſtorical reſearches beyond modern times; it was thought neceſſary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to place before his eye a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world, to the reformation in religion during the 16th century. By a hiſtory of the world, we do not mean a mere liſt of dates, which, when taken by itſelf, is a thing extremely inſignificant; but an account of the moſt intereſting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the cauſes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itſelf, and indiſpenſibly requiſite to the underſtanding of the preſent ſtate of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, conſtitutes the moſt uſeful branch of that ſcience.

It appears in general, from the firſt chapters in Geneſis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous, that mankind had made conſiderable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious both in their ſentiments and manners. Their wickedneſs gave occaſion to a memorable cataſtrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were deſtroyed. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very great change on the ſoil and atmoſphere of this globe, and gave them a form leſs friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diſeaſes which hath ever ſince made ſuch havock in the world. A curious part of hiſtory follows that of the deluge, the repeopling of the world, and the riſing of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three ſons of Noah, the firſt founders of nations, was long preſerved among their ſeveral deſcendants. Japhet continued famous among the weſtern nations, under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter-Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation ſome centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beaſts; and the great heroiſm of thoſe times conſiſted in deſtroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the firſt monarchy whoſe origin is particularly mentioned in hiſtory. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Aſſur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebis, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and regularity. That theſe events ſhould have happened ſo ſoon after the deluge, whatever ſurpriſe it may have occaſioned to the learned ſome centuries ago, need not excite the wonder of the preſent age. We have ſeen, from many inſtances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how ſpeedily mankind increaſe when the generative faculty lies under no reſtraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more

Before Chriſt, 2348.

B. C. 2247.

extenſive than thoſe of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during this early age; and yet theſe kingdoms are not ſuppoſed to have exiſted four centuries before the diſcovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to ſeparate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obſcured. This occaſioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a choſen people. From this period the hiſtory of ancient nations begins a little to expand itſelf; and we learn ſeveral particulars of importance. B. C. 1921.

Mankind had not long been united into ſocieties before they diſcovered an inclination to oppreſs and deſtroy one another. Chaderlaomer king of the Elamites, or Perſians, ſoon became a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, muſt not have been very great, ſince, in one of theſe expeditions, Abraham, aſſiſted only by his houſehold, ſet upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the ſpoil that had been taken. Abraham was ſoon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to ſettle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occaſion to Moſes to mention ſome particulars with regard to the Egyptians, which plainly diſcover the characters of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is deſcribed in the moſt brilliant colours. He is ſurrounded with a croud of courtiers, ſolely occupied in gratifying his paſſions. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been ſo juſtly admired for their wiſdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many ſucceſſive princes, who laboured for their eſtabliſhment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the firſt principles of civil order and regular government ſeem to have been tolerably underſtood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into ſeveral diſtricts or ſeparate departments; councils, compoſed of experienced and ſelect perſons, were eſtabliſhed for the management of public affairs; granaries for preſerving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians, in this age, enjoyed a commerce far from inconſiderable. Theſe facts, though of an ancient date deſerve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans the preſent inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained ſeparate for ſeveral centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, unleſs it be Ninus, the ſucceſſor of Aſſur, who fired by the ſpirit of conqueſt, extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominions, and lays the foundation of that monarchy, aſſiſted by his enterpriſing ſucceſſor Semiramis, which, under the name of the Aſſyrian empire, kept Aſia under the yoke for many ages.

Javan, ſon of Japhet, and grand-ſon of Noah, is the ſtock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are deſcended. Javan eſtabliſhed himſelf in the iſlands in the weſtern coaſt of Aſia Minor, from whence it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not paſs over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon near Corinth, founded by the Pelaſgi, is generally ſuppoſed to have commenced in the year before Chriſt 2090. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceeded a colony from Egypt, who about 2000 years before the Chriſtian æra, penetrated into Greece, and under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was ſoon diſſolved, and the ancient Greeks, who ſeem at this time to have been as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their

lawleſs

lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration in the manner of its inhabitants. The moſt ancient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos, and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful.

B. C. 1850

But the hiſtory of God's choſen people, the Iſraelities, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events, which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint verſion, 1794 years before Chriſt, but according to the Hebrew Chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the World 2315. This is a remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, with reſpect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations.

B. C. 1689.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all the nations of antiquity as being on the ſame footing. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude, that all were in that ſituation. They diſcover others acquinted with many arts, and hence they infer the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in point of art and refinement, as between the civilized kingdoms of modern Europe and the Indians in America, or the Negroes on the coaſt of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world: theſe he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their poſterity. Thoſe nations therefore who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, and who had the beſt opportunities to avail themſelves of the knowledge which their great anceſtor was poſſeſſed of, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made improvements in the arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the firſt ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the inſtruments of huſbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is hardly to be ſuppoſed, that the ancient cities, both in Aſia and Egypt, whoſe foundation, as we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity, could have been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at that time. Nations who live by hunting or paſturage only, lead a wandering life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached paſſages in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, that the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, before the metals come to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money had not been of an ancient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fineneſs; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave ſilver, the metal is weighed in preſence of all the people. As commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice was laid aſide, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing

weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abraham. The *reſilah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears, from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Iſhmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervations may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and alſo a contemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect, that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude, that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were much improved in arts and refinement: for people do not think of luxuries, until the uſeful arts have made high advancement among them.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea: which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable that they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity, who ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce: they were diſtinguiſhed by a word, which, in the Hebrew tongue, ſignifies *merchants*, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they ſet themſelves to improve their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object: and, with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they paſs for the inventors of whatever is ſubſervient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his laſt words to his children: and, if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of ſuch remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coaſts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, ſuppoſe the knowledge of ſeveral others; aſtronomy, for inſtance, or a knowledge of the ſituation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is neceſſary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals to commerce; and ſo of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, ſeveral nations were ſo well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to meaſure by them the duration of their year. It had been an univerſal cuſtom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or ſeven days: this undoubtedly aroſe from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for thoſe nations who led a paſtoral life, or who lived under a ſerene ſky, to obſerve that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks: hence the diviſion of a month. Thoſe people who lived by agriculture, and who were acquainted with the diviſion of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of theſe brought back the ſame temperature of the air, or the ſame ſeaſons: hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of ſcience. This, together with the obſervation of the fixed ſtars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, muſt have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the diſcovery of the *ſolar year*, which at that time would be thought an amazing improvement in aſtronomy. But with regard to thoſe branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyp-

tians, and a few nations of Aſia. Europe offers a frightful ſpectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeneſs and every elegant art, were deſcended from a ſavage race of men, traverſing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and ſometimes to one another? This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. Thoſe deſcendants of Noah, who had removed to a great diſtance from the plains of Shinar, loſt all connection with the civiliſed part of mankind. Their poſterity became ſtill more ignorant; and the human mind was at length ſunk into an abyſs of miſery and wretchedneſs.

We might naturally expect, that from the death of Jacob, and, as we advance forward in time, the hiſtory of the great empires of Egypt and Aſſyria would emerge from their obſcurity. But this is far from being the caſe: we only get a glimpſe of them, and they diſappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ni-
B. C. 1965. nias, who ſucceeded Semiramis and Ninus in the Aſſyrian throne, we find an aſtoniſhing blank in the hiſtory of this empire, for no leſs than eight hundred years. The ſilence of ancient hiſtory on this ſubject is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wiſe princes paſs unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is ſuppoſed to have mounted the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, who was ſwallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Chriſt 1492; by his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very great improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris and his immediate ſucceſſors, was in all probability the moſt powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the beſt calculation, is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But ancient hiſtory often excites without gratifying our curioſity: for, from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Chriſt 781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a very flouriſhing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learning and po-
B. C. 1556. liteneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpire after wiſdom, owes its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what ſituations they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and with little knowledge of thoſe to whom they owed their generation.

B. C. 1506. Cranaus, who ſucceeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civiliſing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſume ſome appearance of form and re-
B. C. 1496. gularity. This engaged Amphictyon, one of thoſe uncommon geniuſes who appear in the world for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of poſterity, to think of ſome expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politics the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions, which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. Theſe reflections he communicated to the kings, or leaders of the different territories; and by his elo-

quence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preſervation. Two deputies from each of theſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy was diſcuſſed, and finally determined. Amphictyon likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and, by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire.

Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Chriſt 1322, the Iſthmian games were celebrated at Corinth, and 1303, the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar. The Greek ſtates, which formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the community. The firſt of theſe was the obſcure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to open the commerce of the Euxine ſea, and to eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that ſeveral were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, long toſſed about on different coaſts. The rocks, at ſome diſtance from the mouth of the Euxine ſea, occaſioned great labour: they ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This is expreſſed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their ſending out a bird which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet at length arrived at Æon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, conſidering the condition of the naval art during this age, was not leſs important than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern diſcoverers. From this expedition to that againſt Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, ſon of the Trojan king, the Greeks muſt have made a wonderful progreſs in arts, in power, and opulence: no leſs than twelve hundred veſſels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. But theſe veſſels were but half decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their conſtruction. If we add to theſe circumſtances, that the Greeks had not the uſe of the ſaw, an inſtrument ſo neceſſary to the carpenter, a modern muſt form but a mean notion of the ſtrength or elegance of this fleet.

B. C. 1263.

B. C. 1184.

Having thus conſidered the ſtate of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumſtances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our preſent undertaking, becauſe it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progreſs of government, arts, and manners, which compoſe ſo great a part of the preſent work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable reſemblance between the political ſituation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who preſided

ſided in the adminiſtration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being abſolute. In each ſociety there were a number of other leaders, whoſe influence over their particular clans or tribes was not leſs conſiderable than that of the king over his immediate followers. Theſe captains were often at war with one another, and ſometimes with their ſovereign. Such a ſituation was in all reſpects extremely unfavourable: each particular ſtate was in miniature what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another delicate painter to ſhade the oppoſite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The hiſtory of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which theſe ſtates, that, for want of union, were weak and inſignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theſeus king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had acquired a great reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He ſaw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve diſtricts, was expoſed; and conceived, that by means of the influence which his perſonal character, united to the royal authority with which he was inveſted, had univerſally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpoſe he endeavoured to maintain, and even to increaſe his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans: he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them: he aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither ſtrangers from all quarters, by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed this city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendor of Athens and of Theſeus now totally eclipſed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, by being diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy of which we have a diſtinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which in a ſhort time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes; the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many priveleges on the two other ranks of perſons. This plan of politics was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year B. C. 1070, the Athenians, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more remarkable, as it happened ſoon after that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like unto other nations.

B. C. 1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been

been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days, however, of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of ſeven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the example of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which, by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deſerve our principal attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens, upon the deceaſe of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleaſant to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians, by aboliſhing the name of king, did not entirely ſubvert the regal authority: they eſtabliſhed a perpetual magiſtrate, who, under the name of Archon, was inveſted with almoſt the ſame rights which their king had enjoyed. The Athenians, in time, became ſenſible, that the archonic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the archonſhip in the ſame hands, was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been eſtabliſhed, increaſed in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again demanded reduction of the power of their archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed for this office. Theſe magiſtrates were not only choſen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. Theſe alterations were too violent not to be attended with ſome dangerous conſequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the moſt unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly poſſible that the ancient cuſtoms of the realm, which were naturally ſuppoſed to be in part aboliſhed by the ſucceſſive changes in the government, ſhould ſufficiently reſtrain the tumultuary ſpirits of the Athenians, in the firſt flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiſer part of the ſtate, who began to prefer any ſyſtem of government to their preſent anarchy and confuſion, to caſt their eyes on Draco, a man of an auſtere but virtuous diſpoſition, as the fitteſt perſon for compoſing a ſyſtem of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, about the year 628, but executed it with ſo much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient hiſtorian, "His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiſcriminate puniſhment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe. Affairs again returned into confuſion and diſorder, and remained ſo till the time of Solon, who died in the year 549. The gentle manners, diſintereſted virtue, and wiſdom, by which this ſage was diſtinguiſhed, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the moſt important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was aſſigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he ſhould undertake it. At length, the motives of public utility overcame all conſiderations of private eaſe, ſafety, and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thouſand dangers. The firſt ſtep of his legiſlation was to aboliſh all the laws of Draco, excepting thoſe relative to murder. The puniſhment of this crime could not be too great; but to conſider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual, by means of its ſeverity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law; and his eſtabliſhments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preſerved their liberties. He ſeems to have ſet out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in

B. C. 1070.

B. C. 684.

which each citizen ſhould have an equal political importance, was a ſyſtem of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens into four claſſes, according to the wealth which they poſſeſſed, and the pooreſt claſs he rendered incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the laſt reſort. But leſt this aſſembly, which was compoſed of all the citizens, ſhould, in the words of Plutarch, like a ſhip with too many ſails, be expoſed to the guſt of folly, tumult, and diſorder, he provided for its ſafety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The firſt of theſe courts conſiſted of four hundred perſons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important buſineſs that came before the aſſembly of the people; the ſecond, though but a court of juſtice, gained a prodigious aſcendancy in the republic, by the wiſdom and gravity of its members, who were not choſen, but after the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny, and the moſt ſerious deliberation.

Such was the ſyſtem of government eſtabliſhed by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the ſame plan moſt of the other ancient republics were eſtabliſhed. To inſiſt on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great lines of it at leaſt ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this ſort. Sparta, like the other ſtates of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is ſaid to be the firſt king, about the year B. C. 1516. At length, the two brothers

B. C. 1102. Euriſthenes and Procles, getting poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and, what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Chriſtian æra. The Spartan government, how-

B. C. 884. ever, did not take that ſingular form which renders it ſo remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus agreed with that already deſcribed, in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and in general in all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution aroſe from this, that in all laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing which had the ſmalleſt tendency to ſoften the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbidden the uſe of money, they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks, capable to bear arms, were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation rather than a hardſhip, and they behaved in it with a ſpirit of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect under one point of view the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt now caſt our eyes on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe great empires, of which

B. C. 781. we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have already mentioned in what obſcurity the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period, to the diſſolution of their government by Cambyſes of Perſia, in the year B. C. 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wiſdom of their laws and political inſtitutions than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for

preſerving

preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sardanapalus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglected the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces governor of Media, and Beleſis governor of Babylon, conſpire againſt their ſovereign, ſet fire to his capital, in which Sardanapalus periſhed, B. C. 820, and divide between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway of Aſia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Aſſyria anno B. C. 777, and Shalmaneſer, one of his ſucceſſors, put an end to the kingdom of Iſrael, and carried the ten tribes captive into Aſſyria and Media, B. C. 721. Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, alſo in the year B. C. 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and maſtered all the countries around him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. The manners of this people as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, that we ſhould enter on the ſame detail upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, ſufficient example of monarchical governments; but how few are our republics? But the æra of Cyrus is in one reſpect extremely remarkable, beſide delivering the Jews from their captivity, becauſe, with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences: and, if poſſible, diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety. B. C. 538.

The taſte for the great and magnificent, ſeems to have been the prevailing character of theſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids, ſtupendous fabrics, ſtill remaining in Egypt at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and two thouſand ſix hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. The apex is 13 feet ſquare. The ſecond ſtands on as much ground as the firſt, but is forty feet lower. It was a ſuperſtition among this people, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body ſuch vegetables as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as theſe ſuperſtitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably ſecure a ſafe and comfortable retreat for their ſouls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the Eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but totally void

of

elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the conſtructing of vaults. The arts, in which theſe nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their principal attention on aſtronomy; but it does not appear that they made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phenomena of the univerſe, or in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that, according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the abſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them, during the lateſt periods of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the neceſſaries and even luxuries of life. They had long been accuſtomed to a civilized and poliſhed life in great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbariſm, and of conſequence brave and warlike. This was ſtill more eaſy in the infancy of the military art: when ſtrength and courage were the only circumſtances which gave the advantage to one nation over another; when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places, which in modern times have been diſcovered to have been ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy; and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard: but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſting. The monarchs who ſucceeded Cyrus gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe thoſe virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's inſtitutions: Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and uſurped the ſupreme power. Such was their ſituation, when the luſt of univerſal empire, which ſeldom fails to torment the breaſt of tyrants, led Darius (at the inſtigation of Hippias who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians burning the city of Sardis), to ſend forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers who, under Cyrus, had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whoſe minds were animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, on the plains of Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians, overcame the Perſian army of a hundred thouſand foot, and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen, Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abilities, the ſecond for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the nobleſt monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in ancient writers.

B. C. 504.

B. C. 490.

Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with an army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thouſand men. This account has been juſtly conſidered, by ſome ingenious modern writers, as incredible. The truth cannot now be aſcertained: but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable from the great extent of his empire, and from the abſurd practice of the eaſtern nations, of encumbering their camp with a ſuperfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by ſea and land, and eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing-boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks, and ſo well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that wanting liberty even virtue mourns,

B. C. 480.

" and

" and looks around for happineſs in vain." But though the Perſian war concluded glorioufly for the Greeks, it is, in a great meaſure, to this war that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired the ſpoils of Perſia; it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connection with the Perſians after the concluſion of it, which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments, and ruined the moſt virtuous confederacy that ever exiſted upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories: delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another; their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponneſian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other ſtates of Greece. They continued to weaken themſelves by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip king of Macedon (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful) rendered himſelf the abſolute maſter of Greece, by the battle of Cheronæa. But this conqueſt is one of the firſt we meet with in hiſtory which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his ſchemes ſo deeply, and by bribery, promiſes, and intrigues, gained ſuch a number of conſiderable perſons in the ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have put in his poſſeſſion what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had loſt that virtue which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanction to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators in moſt of their ſtates, were bribed into the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demoſthenes, aſſiſted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more ſeductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of gaining their affections.

B. C. 431.

B. C. 338.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece: but he did not long ſurvive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and Thebans. Theſe made a feeble effort for expiring liberty: but they were obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this army, in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in overrunning and ſubduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been deſcribed by many authors both ancient and modern, and conſtitutes a ſingular part of the hiſtory of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and ſucceſs, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after ſacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided his dominions among them. This gives riſe to a number of æras and events too complicated for our preſent purpoſe, and even too unintereſting. After conſidering, therefore, the ſtate of arts and ſciences in Greece, we ſhall paſs to the Roman affairs, where the hiſtorical deduction is more ſimple and more important.

B. C. 334.

B. C. 323.

The bare names of illuſtrious men, who flouriſhed in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the higheſt pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned were but the dawnings of this glorious day. Though the eaſtern nations had raiſed magnificent and ſtupendous ſtructures, the Greeks were the firſt people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Epheſian Diana, are the firſt monuments of good taſte. They were erected by the

Grecian colonies, who ſettled in Aſia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phydias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the firſt ſculptor whoſe works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhaſius, and Timantheus, during the ſame age, firſt diſplayed the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Compoſition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Heſiod and Homer, who flouriſhed 1000 years before the Chriſtian æra, the tragic poets Æſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the firſt great improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave ſimplicity and elegance to proſaic writing. Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was left to Thucydides and Demoſthenes to diſcover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every ſpecies of philoſophy was cultivated among them with the utmoſt ſucceſs. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtue of whoſe life, and the excellence of whoſe philoſophy, juſtly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration; his three diſciples, Plato, Ariſtotle*, and Xenophon, may, for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of ſentiment, and propriety of expreſſion, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long courſe of years, has taught us many ſecrets in nature, with which theſe philoſophers were unacquainted, and which no ſtrength of genius could reach. But whatever ſome empyrics in learning may pretend, the moſt learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the ſuperiority of the Greek philoſophers, and have reckoned themſelves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expreſſion.

The Greeks were not leſs diſtinguiſhed for their active than for their ſpeculative talents. It would be endleſs to recount the names of the famous ſtateſmen and warriors, and it is impoſſible to mention a few without doing injuſtice to a greater number. War was firſt reduced into a ſcience by the Greeks. Their ſoldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardor for glory, and not from a dread of their ſuperiors. We have ſeen the effect of this military virtue in their wars againſt the Perſians: the cauſe of it was the wiſe laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus had eſtabliſhed in Greece. But we muſt now leave this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important as their territory was inconſiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of modern Europe.

B. C. 753. The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme inſignificance: but when we conſider him as the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandize themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate, whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Ro-

* Olympiodorus and Ammonius ſay that Ariſtotle was the diſciple of Socrates; but, from Euſebius, it appears that he began his ſtudies under Plato.

mans by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both theſe maxims, by means of which the Roman ſtate arrived at ſuch a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons, diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for reſtraining the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers; and, after a long reign, ſpent in promoting the civil or military intereſts of his country, was, according to the moſt probable conjecture, privately aſſaſſinated by ſome of the members of that ſenate which he himſelf had inſtituted. B. C. 717.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all extraordinary perſonages. Numa, who came next to him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprizes. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magiſtrates called conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the power of their ſovereigns. This revolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The conſuls, who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignalizing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour by every conſideration which could excite them; that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be ſurpriſed that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power all over Italy. B. C. 509.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had been founded or enlarged on the coaſt of the Mediterranean, in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians, B. C. 869, and, according to the practice of their mother country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides that of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſide, through the Straits. Thus miſtreſs of the ſea, and of commerce, ſhe had ſeized on the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itſelf; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not to take up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival ſtates, known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic, when Rome was an inconſiderable ſtate; but ſhe was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we B. C. 264.

have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage laſted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted. A Carthaginian veſſel was wrecked on their coaſt; they uſed it for a model, in three months fitted out a fleet, and the conſul Duilius, who fought their firſt naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpoſe to mention all the tranſactions of theſe wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he is ſent back on his parole, to negociate a change of priſoners. He maintains in the ſenate, the propriety of that law, which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and returns to a certain death.

B. C. 260.

B. C. 256.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies the Romans had to contend with, Hannibal was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans, and having ſettled the inteſtine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with his own ſentiments. For this purpoſe he ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his ſon to the altar, aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans; the courageous boy not only conſented to go, but conjured his father by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will ſwear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied; and the ſolemnity of the ceremony, and the ſacredneſs of the oath, made ſuch an impreſſion upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he croſſes the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and in a moment falls down upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus king of Syracuſe declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandons them. In this extremity Rome owed its preſervation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, deſpiſing popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The ſtrength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raiſes the ſiege of Nola, takes Syracuſe, and revives the drooping ſpirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of theſe great men, but ſaw ſomething more divine in the young Scipio. The ſucceſs of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converſe with the gods. At the age of four-and-twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the firſt aſſault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings ſubmit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and ſees her armies defeated. Hannibal, ſixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hoſtages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the conſent of the Roman people.

B. C. 218.

B. C. 210.

B. C. 201.

After the conqueſt of Carthage, Rome had inconſiderable wars but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconſiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by thoſe quarrels which had laſted ſince the death of Alexander the Great. Their ſcene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſtates of Greece had once more diſengaged themſelves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Acheans, and Beotians; each of theſe was an aſſociation of free cities, which had aſſemblies and magiſtrates in common. The Etolians were the moſt powerful of them all.

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The kings of Macedon maintained that ſuperiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally poſſeſſed over his neighbours. Philip, the preſent monarch, had rendered himſelf odious to the Greeks, by ſome unpopular and tyrannical ſteps; the Etolians were moſt irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their aſſiſtance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garriſons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the ſtates of Greece became their dependents. The Etolians, diſcovering their firſt error, endeavoured to remedy it by another ſtill more dangerous to themſelves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them againſt king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them againſt the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourſe to the ſame prince, who was at this time the moſt powerful monarch in the Eaſt, and the ſucceſſor to the dominions of Alexander in Aſia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice ſo much as that of the Etolians; for, inſtead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be moſt vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans made uſe of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now purſue Antiochus, the laſt object of their reſentment, into Aſia, and, having vanquiſhed him by ſea and land, compel him to ſubmit to an infamous treaty. B. C. 190.

In theſe conqueſts the Romans allowed the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people, which denomination, under a ſpecious name, concealed a condition very ſervile, and inferred that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on theſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from Mithridates king of Pontus, for the ſpace of 26 years. But this monarch had great reſources. His kingdom, bordering on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men, whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not a ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince, who dared to ſhew himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, at laſt was compelled to yield to the ſuperior fortune of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and of his life, in the year B. C. 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The ſame Marius, whoſe name was ſo terrible in Africa, then made the North of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians, leſs formidable than the Roman legions, retired to their wilds and deſarts. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an eternal war within her walls. This war had ſubſiſted from the firſt periods of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The deſcendants of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to ſhake

B. C. 106.

B. C. 102.

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it off. A thouſand diſputes on this ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

Theſe diſputes, while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous conſequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern courts, and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable, in order to obtain them, the ſtate, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either ſide, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name; the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline, and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little reſpect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, conquered, and plundered. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the ſoldiers of Sylla, Rome would have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæſar at length appears. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Cæſar appears victorious almoſt at the ſame time all over the world: in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he is acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius attempt to give Rome her liberty, by ſtabbing him in the ſenate-houſe. But, though they deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls into the hands of Marc Anthony; Cæſar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæſar, wreſts it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium, and there is no Brutus nor Caſſius to put an end to his life. Thoſe friends of liberty had killed themſelves in deſpair; and Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remained the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms among diſtant nations; and, while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter at Rome, the Romans were, without diſpute, the maſters of the world. Their military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Perſian, the Grecian, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No ſooner, therefore, was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne than ambaſſadors, from all quarters of the known world, croud to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a formidable enemy, court his friendſhip; India ſeeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weſer receives his laws. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power; and Jeſus Chriſt comes into the world, four years before the common æra.

B. C. 48.

B. C. 44.

B. C. 31.

B. C. 7.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and

and manners of that people. In the infancy of the republic, and even long after the conſular government was eſtabliſhed, learning and the arts made very little progreſs at Rome. Agriculture, and the cultivation of arms principally engaged their attention. An adequate idea may be formed of the little value they placed upon works of art by the edict of Mummius, who, having deſtroyed the city of Corinth, ordered the pictures painted by the moſt eminent artiſts of Greece, to be carried to Rome, with this remarkable caution, that if any were loſt in the paſſage, they ſhould be obliged to make up the number. Nor were the ſciences in more requeſt at Rome. Some of the ableſt philoſophers of Greece coming to Rome in the time of Cato the Elder, he ordered them to depart the city, leſt the minds of the youth ſhould be corrupted by philoſophy, and rendered too ſoft for military atchievements. They had for a long ſeries of years no written laws at Rome: thoſe of Solon, brought from Greece, were the firſt that were known in that city. They were generally called the laws of the twelve tables, becauſe they were written in twelve departments. Theſe conſtituted the civil law of the Romans. They were afterwards corrected by various decrees of the ſenate, orders of the people, and edicts of the prætors.

After the deſtruction of Carthage, and the ſtates of Greece, when the Romans had no rival to fear, they applied themſelves to cultivate the arts of peace. The curious remains of the Grecian magnificence which were ſent to Rome inſpired them with a deſire of imitating the perfect models of the Greek artiſts. Whatever was elegant, whatever was curious, whatever was beautiful, might be conſulted without trouble or expence. But the Romans, though undoubtedly great artiſts, never equalled the finiſhed models of their maſters. Eloquence had been long ſtudied in Rome, but it did not reach its greateſt height till Cicero appeared. His orations are inferior only to thoſe of Demoſthenes. Cicero gave to eloquence all the graces of which it is ſuſceptible, without leſſening its ſolidity and gravity. He gave cadence, and harmony to the Roman language, and enriched it with beauties before unknown. He was to Rome what Demoſthenes had been to Greece, the glory of his country; they both carried eloquence to the higheſt perfection it ever attained.—— The poetry of Virgil is equal to any thing produced by the Greeks, except the Iliad of Homer. Like the proſe of Demoſthenes, the verſes of Homer are inimitable: and the Grecian bard ſtill remained without an equal. But if Virgil fell ſhort of the majeſty of Homer, Horace excelled all that ever went before him in his ſatires and epiſtles; indeed he had no model that we know of, in that ſpecies of writing, and to this day continues without a rival. His odes have not indeed the majeſty and ſublimity of Pindar; but they abound in beauties of another kind; a delicacy of ſentiment, a ſmooth harmonious flow of verſe, and the moſt lively images conveyed in the correcteſt language.——In hiſtorians Rome alſo abounded; and Salluſt has, not without reaſon, been placed at their head. He is generally ranked with Thucydides; and ſome have not ſcrupled to conſider him as the moſt excellent hiſtorian of antiquity. The brevity of his ſtyle is remarkable; it proceeded from the lively vigor of his imagination. His deſcriptions, his characters, his harangues, are equally beautiful; he ſucceeds alike in all: nothing can be added to their force, ſpirit, and eloquence. Livy is one of thoſe few writers who have rendered their names immortal. Throughout his whole hiſtory there reigns an eloquence perfect in every kind. His ſtyle, though varied to infinity, is every where equal: ſimple without meanneſs; elegant and florid without affectation; great and ſublime without being tumid; full of force and ſweetneſs; always clear, and always intelligible. Livy poſſeſſes all the eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcriptive, more eloquent, and more ſentimental. Tacitus did not flouriſh till after the reign of Auguſtus; nor has his ſtyle the purity of the writers in that age of literary competition. The part of his hiſtory which contains the reign of Tiberius, has always been

been conſidered as his maſter-piece. There was no neceſſity for the abilities of a great writer to paint the vices of Caligula, the ſtupidity of Claudius, or the cruelties of Nero; but to write the life of Tiberius required the genius of Tacitus, who could unravel all the intrigues of the cabinet, aſſign the real cauſes of events, and withdraw the veil of deception, which concealed from the eyes of the public the real motives and ſprings of action. The Romans never applied themſelves greatly to philoſophy. Lucretius, who delivered in ſpirited verſification the opinions of Epicurus, is the only philoſopher, except Cicero, whoſe writings have reached our times: a cloſe and aſſiduous ſearch into the operations of nature, was not perhaps agreeable to the genius of the Romans.——In tragedy, and comedy, the Romans never produced any thing that can bear the leaſt compariſon with the immortal writers of Greece, Æſchylus, Euripides, and Sophocles. The tragic poets hardly deſerve to be mentioned. At the head of the comic department, Plautus and Terence are juſtly placed; but neither were poſſeſſed of the *vis comica*, or lively vein of humour, which is eſſential to comedy, and which diſtinguiſhes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and of our Shakſpeare.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an æra, which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe hiſtories, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not indeed aboliſh the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguiſhed its liberties; and while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelties upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpotic empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recall to our minds the ſituation of Turkey at preſent. It is of no importance, therefore to conſider the character of the emperors, ſince they had no power but what aroſe from a mercenary ſtanding army, nor to enter into a detail with regard to the tranſactions of the court, which were directed with that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which univerſally prevail under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more difficult taſk ſtill remained for the emperors, to ſubdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſcovered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are deſcribed by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were on both ſides bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid waſte, the inhabitants periſhed in the field, many were carried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happineſs of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed from their intercouſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, language, and manners of their new maſters. Theſe, however, were but miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of their arms, for being overawed by mercenary ſoldiers kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumſtance which could ſupport them under theſe complicated calamities, was the hope of ſeeing better days.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and

force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the parts of Germany which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries of the north of Europe, and north-weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that reſtleſſneſs which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder, or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this, inſtead of daunting men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper, only rouſed them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, of the friends they had loſt, and warm them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (ſays an elegant hiſtorian, in deſcribing this ſcene of deſolation) with their wives and children, and ſlaves and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted were occupied by more remote tribes of Barbarians. Theſe in their turn, puſhed forward into more fertile countries, and like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the Barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred, and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the hiſtory of the world, during which the condition of the human race was moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the Great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The cotemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, labour, and are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe the horror of it. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of Nations,* are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor in the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Chriſtianity, changed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. This occaſioned a prodigious alteration. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the Eaſt, threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders. A. D. 328.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Weſtern Empire*, in contradiſtinction to Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the *Eaſtern Empire*), weakened by this diviſion, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Odoacer, a Barbarian chieftain, is ſeated on the throne of the Cæſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire were gradual and ſucceſſive. The immenſe fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and ſeveral centuries were employed in demoliſhing it. The ancient diſcipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was ſo efficacious, that the remains of it deſcended to their ſucceſſors, and muſt have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite diſh. The tyranny, and the univerſal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they A. D. 476.

are called Cæſars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations who overcame them.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were maſters of the ſouthern, and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths, of Spain: the Goths and Lombards, of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts, or literature remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period, till the 16th century, Europe exhibited a picture of moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were words ſcarcely in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in the moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the breviary which they were obliged daily to recite: ſome of them could ſcarcely read it. The human mind neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the 9th century, governed France and Germany with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the ſame century, endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and gave their ſubjects a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and even increaſed; ſo that a ſtill greater degree of ignorance and barbariſm prevailed throughout Europe.

A new diviſion of property gradually introduced a new ſpecies of government formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Feudal Syſtem*. The king, or general, who led the Barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and in diſtributing portions of their lands among their dependents, annexed the ſame condition to the grant. But though this ſyſtem ſeemed to be admirably calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude. They were deprived of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale or by conveyance. Every offended baron, or chieftain, buckled on his armour, and ſought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter *.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who, while they enſlaved the people, controlled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new priveilges on towns. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations, or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty made ſuch a happy change in the condition of man-

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, ſome relics of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

kind,

kind, as rouſed them from that ſtupidity and inaction into which they had been ſunk by the wretchedneſs of their former ſtate. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive this ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the eaſtern or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the Weſt. In this city, ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where ſome reliſh for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated ſome knowledge of theſe to their neighbours in Italy; and the cruſades, which were begun by the Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jeruſalem, opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt. Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies, in their way to Paleſtine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt, and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent. A. D. 1096.

Soon after the cloſe of the holy war, the mariners compaſs was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian ſtates, particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, began to eſtabliſh a regular commerce with the Eaſt, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. Theſe commodities they diſpoſed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire ſome taſte of elegance, unknown to their predeceſſors, or deſpiſed by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almoſt entirely in the hands of the Italians. more commonly known in thoſe ages by the name of Lombards. Companies, or ſocieties of Lombard merchants, ſettled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of theſe companies ſettled in London; and from hence the name of Lombard-ſtreet was derived. A. D. 1302.

While the Italians in the ſouth of Europe cultivated trade with ſuch induſtry and ſucceſs, the commercial ſpirit awaked in the North towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infeſted that ſea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburgh, ſoon after they had begun to open ſome trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived ſuch advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a ſhort time, eighty of the moſt conſiderable cities, ſcattered through thoſe large countries of Germany and Flanders, which ſtretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanſeatic League*; which became ſo formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greateſt monarchs. The members of this powerful aſſociation formed the firſt ſyſtematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general aſſemblies. They ſupplied the reſt of Europe with naval ſtores; and pitched on different towns, the moſt eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they eſtabliſhed ſtaples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not leſs uſeful commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanſeatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to ſuch extent as well as advantage, as diffuſed among them a general habit of induſtry, which long

rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the moſt opulent, the moſt populous, and beſt cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flouriſhing ſtate of theſe provinces, of which he diſcovered the true cauſe, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a ſpirit of in-
A. D. 1330. duſtry among his own ſubjects, who, blind to the advantages of their ſituation, and ignorant of the ſource from which opulence was deſtined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt thoſe manufactures, the materials of which they furniſhed to foreigners. By alluring Flemiſh artiſans to ſettle in his dominions, as well as by many wiſe laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and firſt turned the active and enterpriſing genius of his people towards thoſe arts which have raiſed the Engliſh to the firſt rank among commercial nations.

The Chriſtian princes, after their great loſſes in the cruſades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendſhip of the great khans of Tartary, whoſe fame in arms had reached the moſt remote corners of Europe and Aſia, that they might be ſome check upon the Turks, who had been ſuch enemies to the Chriſtian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, ſerving occaſionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the fineſt countries of Aſia.

The Chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks, a wandering profeſſion of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of theſe infidels. The Engliſh philoſopher Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations, or traditions, many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of the monkiſh kind, who committed his diſcoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the moſt remote corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chemiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return magni-
A. D. 1405. fying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired their countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt that rendered a paſſage thither by ſea probable and practicable. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

At firſt they contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the coaſt of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, were ſo fortunate as to ſail beyond the cape, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſchemes ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any

any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he at length ſucceeded through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. This princeſs was prevailed upon to patroniſe him, by the repreſentations of Juan Perez, guardian of the monaſtery of Rabida. He was a man of conſiderable learning, and of ſome credit with queen Iſabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his perſonal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a phyſician ſettled in his neigbourhood, who was eminent for his ſkill in mathematical knowledge. This inveſtigation completely ſatisfied them of the ſolidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of ſucceſs in executing the plan which he propoſed. Perez, therefore, ſo ſtrongly recommended it to queen Iſabella, that ſhe entered into the ſcheme, and even generouſly offered, to the honour of her ſex, to pledge her own jewels, in order to raiſe as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the requiſite ſum, that the queen might not be reduced to the neceſſity of having recourſe to that expedient.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with three ſhips, upon one of the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had many difficulties to contend with; and his ſailors, who were often diſcontented, at length began to inſiſt upon his return, threatening, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard: but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land, after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found, to his ſurpriſe, that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and which he ſoon diſcovered to be a new world: of this the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs into which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind. Learning now awoke from her ſlumber of near twelve centuries, and the inhabitants of Europe became another people. The art of printing which ſpreads with ſuch rapidity from country to country the wiſdom, and follies of mankind, was invented: artillery and engineering were brought to perfection, and totally changed the operations of war. Every maritime nation fitted out fleets for making diſcoveries, and the whole world became connected by commerce. The reformation in religion reſtored liberty to genius; the human mind was releaſed from the ſhackles of ſuperſtition, which had long ſilenced reaſon, and prevented the thinking faculty from exerting its powers. The arts and ſciences began to be cultivated, literature was eſteemed; commerce was every day improved, and riches flowed into Europe from every quarter. New principles of action, and new ſyſtems of conduct, were introduced at this æra of mental improvement; but the powers of the human mind are unfolded only by ſlow degrees. Many prejudices were to be removed, many abuſes corrected, and many difficulties ſurmounted, before the ſciences could appear in their genuine luſtre; for the principles of the arts and ſciences were forgotten. Truth and beauty ſeem indeed to ſurround mankind; but they are diſregarded till properly pointed out. The veil muſt be withdrawn from the face of nature, before her genuine graces can be diſcovered. A ſucceſſion of great geniuſes is neceſſary to explore the hidden paths of true philoſophy.

A. D. 1440.

The

The firſt ſtudies that engaged mankind at the revival of learning, were languages and hiſtory. The human mind, releaſed from barbariſm, grew eager to collect ideas; but was then incapable of acquiring them in a regular order. Memory, therefore, was the firſt faculty cultivated; becauſe the moſt eaſily ſatisfied, and the knowledge it procures the moſt eaſily attained. Hence proceeded that ſwarm of ſcholars, ſo deeply ſkilled in the learned languages, as to neglect their own; who knew every thing of the ancients but their graces, and who prided themſelves with the pomp of learning. An inventive genius is always diſſatisfied with its own province; becauſe it ſees much farther than it reaches; and the moſt penetrating minds often find in themſelves a ſecret rigorous judge; which the approbation of others may ſilence for a while, but can never corrupt. We need not therefore be ſurpriſed that theſe ſcholars ſhould boaſt ſo highly of their pompous province; though it often appears ridiculous, and ſometimes barbarous. Erudition was then abſolutely neceſſary; it paved the way to polite learning.

But this fondneſs for the ancient, and neglect of the modern languages did not long continue. The learned were ſoon convinced that beautiful thoughts loſt nothing by being clothed in a living language; and hence they endeavoured to expreſs in their own tongues, what the ancients had delivered in theirs. Thus the imagination of the moderns was gradually kindled up by that of the ancients; and produced all the noble performances in the laſt and preſent centuries in eloquence, hiſtory, and poetry.

The arts of elegance are ſo cloſely connected with polite learning, that a genius for cultivating the one, leads to the improvement of the other. The various works of the ancients were no ſooner carefully examined, than judicious artiſts were ſtruck with thoſe obvious maſter-pieces of antiquity, which had eſcaped the fury of Gothic barbarity. But the works of Praxiteles and Phidias could only be imitated but by exact copies. Hence Raphael, and Michael Angelo, brought their art to a degree of perfection, which has not ſince been exceeded.

The progreſs of philoſophy was much ſlower than that of the polite arts. Moſt of the works of the ancients were loſt; and the few that remained, being imperfect or ſpoiled by time, could give but very uncertain and confuſed glimmerings of ſo diffuſive a ſubject. The face of nature is the primary book of philoſophers, and the moderns were obliged to ſtudy it: the ancients could not ſave them the labour. But philoſophy had other difficulties that retarded its progreſs; ignorance, a blind admiration for antiquity, and ſuperſtitious bigotry, joined in obſcuring the light of reaſon, and had almoſt ſtifled the genuine rays of ſcience in their dawn.

Whilſt ignorant or malevolent enemies therefore declared open war with ſcience, philoſophy retreated under the covert of ſome extraordinary men; who, without entertaining the dangerous ambition of unveiling the eyes of their cotemporaries, prepared in ſhade and ſilence, that light which afterwards, by inſenſible degrees, enlightened the world.

By this prudent method the labours of the learned were at laſt crowned with ſucceſs; the rays of ſcience diſpelled the night of ignorance, and philoſophy triumphed over the chicanery of the ſchools. In this noble conteſt the Engliſh had the greateſt ſhare: they were at once the champions of liberty and learning; and to their diſcoveries and penetrating ſagacity, the world is principally indebted for the preſent perfection of literature. In the profound parts of ſcience they were never ſurpaſſed, perhaps never equalled: they demoliſhed the ſyſtems which imagination had built on the foundations of ſophiſtry, followed nature through her intricate mazes, and eſtabliſhed philoſophy on the ſolid baſis of truth.

The 15th and 16th centuries were thus diſtinguiſhed for ſo many important diſcoveries. "It was in theſe ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one

great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected, after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we have given ſome account in the hiſtory of each particular ſtate in the following work. The great events which happened then have not hitherto ſpent their force. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed, ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, ſtill influence, in ſome degree, the councils of European nations."

From all which it ſeems extremely certain, that the concurrence of ſo many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no leſs certain, that, in contending for it, they muſt weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves incapable of defending even their juſt poſſeſſions. The partial conqueſts they may make are extremely illuſive; inſtead of promoting, they rather oppoſe their deſigns; the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker; and great projects have not been ſo often executed by ſlow reiterated efforts, as in the courſe of a few years, and ſometimes by a ſingle expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of deſtroying the rights of his ſubjects; he may proceed by ſlow degrees in the execution of it; and if he die before it is completed, his ſucceſſor may purſue the ſame ſteps, and avail himſelf of what was done before him. But external conqueſts cannot be concealed; they generally occaſion more fear than hurt, and are almoſt always leſs ſolid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occaſion to, by which the prince who, by misfortune has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the laſt extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the beſt eſtabliſhed in the ſcience of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The ſtates of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the Perſian invaſions, exhibit the ſame truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the moſt inconſiderable of theſe little ſocieties, but in its turn imbibed the frenzy of conqueſt, and in its turn too was reduced by this frenzy to the utmoſt miſery and diſtreſs *. The modern examples are ſo well known, that it is almoſt unneceſſary to mention them. Who does not know that the houſe of Auſtria † excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain! Had that family never been the object of fear, the empreſs-queen would never have become the object of compaſſion. France affords an example not leſs ſtriking. The nerves of that kingdom were ſtrained ſo far beyond their ſtrength, by an ambitious monarch, that it ſeemed hardly poſſible they ſhould acquire their natural tone in the courſe of this century. The debility of their efforts in the war of 1756 proved the greatneſs of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which is not ſlow and gradual.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain for a long time enjoyed the greateſt degree of proſperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to have been the more attentive to preſerve ſo brilliant an exiſtence. A great empire cannot be continued

* The reader who would ſee this ſubject fully illuſtrated, may look at Iſocrates' Oration on the Peace; one of the moſt finiſhed models of ancient eloquence; and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

† Germany, Holland, and all the Low Countries, ſeveral ſtates in Italy, the kingdom of Spain, with the vaſt empires of Mexico and Peru in South America, were, at the time of the Reformation, governed by Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria: territories which, though exceeding in riches and extent the moſt powerful empires of antiquity, did not gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign was a ſcene of hoſtility againſt his neighbours. One of his ſucceſſors, the late empreſs-queen, and the repreſentative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only ſtripped of her dominions, but reduced ſo low as to be in want of neceſſaries; and contributions were actually raiſed for her in Great Britain, whoſe king, George II. engaged in her cauſe, and at the expence of this nation reinſtated her upon the imperial throne.

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in a happy ſituation, but by wiſdom and moderation. Every attempt to extend her dominions muſt be attended with two infallible conſequences; the firſt, to alarm her neighbours; the ſecond, to augment her armies. The augmentation of armies may, in time, endanger our conſtitution; and the farther our conqueſts are removed from home, this danger becomes the greater, as thoſe armies will ſoon, by living in a diſtant climate, loſe all affection for their native country. Without entering into the labyrinth of political diſputes, it will be acknowledged, that the unhappy conteſt of Great Britain with the American colonies, has plunged her into difficulties; her national debt has been augmented to a prodigious height; and her taxes greatly increaſed. But there is reaſon to believe, that the preſent peace with America, and with the European powers with whom ſhe has been lately involved in war, will ſoon reſtore her proſperity and tranquillity.

PART III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever rouſed the attention of mankind: but they being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the ſublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to thoſe nations whoſe religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular paſſions, of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven reſpecting this important object. In deducing the hiſtory of religion, therefore, we muſt make the ſame diſtinction which we have hitherto obſerved, in tracing the progreſs of arts, ſciences, and of civilization among mankind. We muſt ſeparate what is human from what is divine, what had its origin from particular revelations, from what is the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this diſtinction, we find, that in the firſt ages of the world, the religion of the eaſtern nations was pure and luminous. It aroſe from a divine ſource, and was not then diſfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, theſe began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obſcured, and among thoſe tribes which ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſocieties of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this ſituation a particular people were ſelected by God himſelf, to be the depoſitaries of his law and worſhip; but the reſt of mankind were left to form hypotheſes upon theſe ſubjects, which were more or leſs perfect according to an infinity of circumſtances, which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The moſt common religion of antiquity, that which prevailed the longeſt, and extended the wideſt, was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of Gods. The rage of ſyſtem, the ambition of reducing all the phenomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occaſioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this ſpecies of worſhip. For, without entering into a minute detail, it is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the ſubject; and what is ſaid upon it in general, muſt always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the ancients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor of diſfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the divinity. It ſeems to have ariſen during the

rudeſt ages of ſociety, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and paſſion. It was built ſolely upon ſentiment: as each tribe of men had their heroes, ſo likewiſe they had their gods. Thoſe heroes who led them forth to the combat, who preſided in their councils, whoſe image was engraved on their fancy, whoſe exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an exiſtence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendſhip, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot eaſily conceive; but the power of imagination over the ſenſes is what all men have in ſome degree experienced. Combine theſe two cauſes, and it will not appear ſtrange that the images of departed heroes ſhould have been ſeen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the ſame functions which they performed when alive. An appearance ſo unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil ſpirits, and who had not learnt to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the teſtimony of thoſe who had ſeen it, ſupported by the extreme credulity and romantic caſt of thoſe who had not, gained an univerſal aſſent among all the members of their ſociety. A ſmall degree of reflection would be ſufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes exiſted after death, it might likewiſe be the caſe of thoſe of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be eſtabliſhed, the propitious and the hoſtile; the gods who were to be loved, and thoſe who were to be feared. But time which wears off the impreſſions of tradition, the frequent invaſions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, deſolated, or tranſplanted, made them loſe the names, and confound the characters of thoſe two orders of divinities, and form various ſyſtems of religion, which, though warped by a thouſand particular circumſtances, gave no ſmall indications of their firſt texture and original materials. In general the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity: they were ſubject to all the paſſions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many inſtances diſcovered the preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the ſame ſubſtances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambroſia; they had a particular pleaſure in ſmelling the ſteam of the ſacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worſhipped, naturally reſulted from their character. The moſt enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the ſame notion of gods and religion, with thoſe that are to be met with in the poems of Heſiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flouriſhed B. C. 430 years, was the firſt, even in Greece, that publicly announced the exiſtence of one Creator and Governor of the univerſe.

It muſt be obſerved, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical ſocieties, whoſe principles do not fall within our plan, the greateſt part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, alſo had their's; and there was room enough in the univerſe for both to live together in friendſhip, without interfering with one another.

The introduction of Chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the ſervice he required of men, produced a total alteration in their religious ſentiment and belief. But this is not the place for handling this ſublime ſubject: it is ſufficient to obſerve here, that a religion which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no aſſociation with falſe gods, muſt either be deſtroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the caſe. Chriſtianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the ſublimity of its doctrines and precepts; it required not the aid of human power; it ſuſtained itſelf by the truth and wiſdom by which it was characteriſed. But in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly

maxims, of maxims very inconſiſtent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and the exorbitant claim of the biſhop of Rome, over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe, within our narrow limits, all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the controul of the Roman emperors, then reſiding in Conſtantinople; by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of Barbarians, by whom that empire began to be diſmembered; and by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which Fortune threw in their way, ſlowly erected the fabric of their antichriſtian power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards a terror to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious were the invention of printing, the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which after many ages of barbarity, made their way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the *miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt*, their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects, the incredible wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of the reformation. The abſurdity of the claims of the church of Rome was demonſtrated; many of their doctrines were proved to be equally unſcriptural and irrational; and ſome of their abſurd mummeries and ſuperſtitions were expoſed both by argument and ridicule. The ſervices of the reformers in this reſpect give them a juſt claim to our veneration; but involved as they had themſelves been in the darkneſs of ſuperſtition, it was not to be expected that they ſhould be able wholly to free themſelves from errors; they ſtill retained an attachment to ſome abſurd doctrines, and preſerved too much of the intolerant ſpirit of the church from which they had ſeparated themſelves. With all their defects, they are entitled to our admiration and eſteem; and the Reformation begun by Luther in Germany in the year 1517, and which took place in England A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil, as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with EUROPE.

EUROPE.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe, containing according to Zimmermann* only about 2,627,574 ſquare miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world in the other quarters, are eſtimated at 36,666,806 ſquare miles, is in many reſpects that which moſt deſerves our attention. There the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards improvement; and there the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences, both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greateſt variety of character, government, and manners; and from whence we draw the greateſt number of facts and memorials, for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world. Firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The great number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece: and we have ſeen that it was there the human mind began to avail itſelf of its ſtrength, and that many of the arts, ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented, or at leaſt much improved. What Greece therefore was, with regard to Europe, Europe is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther, and it is neceſſary to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece as it is at preſent, under the dominion of Barbarians) was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitution; ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt, from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force, and ſoften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, that do not exiſt any where elſe. In proportion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe, *ariſtocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and ſome ſtates of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter.

* See Zimmermann's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5. where the reader will find an account of the geographical ſquare miles contained in Europe, as ſtated by ſix of the ableſt modern geographers, viz. Buſching, Kitchin, Templeman, Bergman, Crome, and Staliſt. Ueberſich; of their different accounts the average is exactly the number ſtated above.

There are, likewiſe, mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments in Europe are compoſed of two of the ſimple forms, ſuch as Poland, ſeveral ſtates of Italy, &c. all which ſhall be explained in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but, from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church; 2d, Popery; and 3d, Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm and Calvaniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the two diſtinguiſhed reformers of the 16th century.

The languages of Europe are derived from the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic.

"The greateſt part of Europe being ſituated above the 45th degree of northern latitude, and even its moſt ſouthern provinces being far diſtant from the torrid zone, the ſpecies of organized bodies are much leſs numerous in Europe than in the other parts of the globe. Thus for inſtance upon an equal number of ſquare miles, the number of ſpecies of quadrupeds in Europe is to the number of them in Aſia as 1 to $2\frac{1}{5}$, to that in America as 1 to $2\frac{1}{3}$, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10: and the number of the vegetable ſpecies in the other three diviſions of the globe, is greatly ſuperior to that in Europe. But Nature has enriched our continent with every ſpecies of minerals; diamonds, and platina perhaps excepted. Gold, the firſt of metals, is not found in Europe as plentifully as in the other continents. However as the European nations excel the reſt of mankind not only in the ſkill of making the beſt uſe of their natural productions, but alſo in the art of tranſplanting into their own ſoil as many of the foreign productions as their nature will permit; Europe upon the whole muſt be allowed to be one of the richeſt parts of the globe *."

It will doubtleſs be agreeable to the inquiſitive mind to have at one view a comparative eſtimate of the different ſtates of Europe, both as to the article of revenue, and that of their land and naval forces: we ſhall therefore add from the ſame reſpectable authority †.

Public Revenue *of the* Principal States *in* Europe.

	£. Sterl.	
1. Great Britain	14,500,000	
2. Auſtria —	12,400,000	(112 million florins)
3. France —	18,000,000	(Necker Compte Rendu)
4. Spain —	5,000,000	Of Old Spain alone
5. Ruſſia —	5,800,000	
6. Turkey —	5,000,000	
7. Pruſſia —	3,600,000	
8. Portugal —	1,800,000	
9. Sicily —	1,400,000	medium
10. Holland —	4,000,000	
11. Sweden —	1,300,000	
12. Venice —	1,000,000	
13. Denmark —	1,000,000	
14. Electorate of Saxony —	1,100,000	
15. Electorate of Hanover	900,000	
16. Joint Elect. of the Palat. and Bavaria	1,100,000	
17. Sardinia —	1,000,000	

"A more exact account will be found in the ſpecial tables, the preceding ſtatement in round numbers being intended merely to give the reader a general idea of the relative ſtate of European finances. It would, however, be very impro-

* Zimmermann, p. 8.

† Ibid, p. 11—15.

per

per to judge of the power of ſtates merely by their finances, becauſe, in ſome countries, the value of money is much higher than in others: thus, for inſtance, the whole Ruſſian army coſts the ſtate leſs than two millions of rubles. Ruſſia, Denmark, England, Sweden, and others have paper money."

LAND FORCES *of the* EUROPEAN STATES *in the Year* 1783.

France — —	300,000	
Auſtria — —	282,000	
Ruſſia (450,000 in all) in Europe — —	290,000	
Pruſſia — —	224,000	
Turkey (210,000 in all) in Europe only —	170,000	
Spain — —	60,000	including militia
Denmark — —	72,000	
Great Britain — —	58,000	including militia
Sweden — —	50,000	
Sardinia — —	40,000	
Holland — —	37,000	
Naples and Sicily —	30,000	
Electorate of Saxony —	26,000	
Portugal — —	20,000	
Electorate of Bavaria and the Palatinate —	24,000	
Heſſe Caſſel — —	15,000	
Hanover — —	20,000	
Poland — —	15,000	
Venice — —	8,000	
Wurtemburg — —	6,000	
The Eccleſiaſtical State —	5,000	
Tuſcany — —	3,000	

"As I have ſtated here the forces of the principal ſtates only, paſſing over a conſiderable part of Germany, Italy and Switzerland, we may calculate the armies of all the countries in Europe to amount to two millions of men; ſo that ſuppoſing 140 millions of inhabitants in Europe, no more than $\frac{1}{70}$ of the whole population are ſoldiers. The preſent military eſtabliſhment of every kingdom, in a time of general peace, differs ſomewhat from the above ſtatement. France, Auſtria, and Pruſſia have by far the moſt formidable armies: as to Ruſſia, the immenſe extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120,000, or 130,000, men to act againſt an enemy; and as to the Turkiſh forces, they are a preſent much inferior to any other well-diſciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population, and the number of ſoldiers, is not unworthy of obſervation. There are in Germany, nearly 500,000 ſoldiers, conſequently $\frac{1}{52}$ of the whole population are engaged in the military profeſſion: in Italy, on the contrary, even ſuppoſing the ſtanding armies of that country to amount to 120,000 men, this number makes only $\frac{1}{133}$ of the whole population, which amounts to 16 millions."

NAVAL FORCES.

NUMBER of SHIPS of the LINE, FRIGATES, CUTTERS, SLOOPS, &c.

1. England —	465	
2. France —	266	
3. Spain —	130	
4. Holland —	95	
5. Sweden —	85	
6. Denmark —	60	
7. Turkey —	50	commonly reckoned 60
8. Ruſſia —	63	
9. Sardin —	32	
10. Venice —	30	
11. Sicily —	25	
12. Portugal —	24	
Total	1325	

"Several of theſe numbers, taken from the naval liſts of 1783, are at preſent reduced; the actual number will be mentioned in the ſpecial tables. This gives, however, ſome idea of the reſpective naval ſtrength of the different powers of Europe. Some of them, as for inſtance, Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having had no war for many years paſt, and having, for that reaſon, built but a ſmall

ſmall number of ſhips, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have; and they would, undoubtedly, increaſe their naval forces very conſiderably in caſe of a war.

" It may, perhaps, be an object of curioſity, to compare the proportions of ground now occupied, and formerly diſputed by the Roman Catholic and Proteſtant religions, with the numbers of their adherents. The proportion of the ſurface of the countries in which the Proteſtant religion is eſtabliſhed, to thoſe in which the Roman Catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4: the number of Roman Catholics is, according to my calculations, drawn up with as much accuracy as ſuch an intricate matter will allow of, about 90,000,000; the number of Proteſtants only 24,000,000, which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1. I ſhall obſerve, in addition to this account of the European religions, that an inconſiderable number of ignorant Laplanders may, with propriety, be called Pagans*.

" The greateſt part of Europe is under the influence of a climate, which, being tempered with a moderate degree of cold, forms a race of men, ſtrong, bold, active, and ingenious; forced by neceſſity to make the beſt uſe they can of the ſmaller ſhare of vegetable and animal treaſures, which their ſoil produces. In hotter and richer parts of the globe, the profuſion of ſpontaneous natural productions, and the heat of the atmoſphere, relax the bodily and mental powers of the inhabitants, check their ſpirit of enterprize, and confine the compaſs of their thought. The torrid zone has never been able, nor is it likely. to boaſt of a Newton, a Cæſar, or a Frederic.

" Great ridges of mountains, the chief of which are the Alps, the Appenines, the Pyrenean, the Carpathian, Sudetic, and Saxon mountains, effect not only a great variety in the climate, but pour out many large and navigable rivers, and contain every ſpecies of minerals. It is likewiſe no ſmall convenience and encouragement to commerce, that Europe is interſected by ſeveral ſeas, and that it is contiguous to the Atlantic Ocean.

" The ſeeming natural diſadvantages of Europe have, by dint of the ingenuity and perſeverance of the inhabitants, given riſe to numberleſs arts and ſciences, which have been carried to ſuch a degree of perfection, as inſures to Europe a decided ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. Aſia, Africa, and America have immenſe deſerts, ſuch as are no where to be found in Europe; deſerts of many thouſand ſquare miles, and which are partly owing to natural, and inſuperable diſadvantages of ſituation, partly to want of induſtry, which is at once both cauſe, and effect of deſolation. It is almoſt needleſs to mention how far the ſciences of Europe excel thoſe of the other three continents, excepting thoſe parts into which European knowledge and civilization have been tranſplanted. Europe may alſo boaſt of the greateſt number of uſeful inventions and inſtitutions, to preſerve and to propagate acquired knowledge. It has at preſent about 130 univerſities, and an almoſt infinite number of literary ſocieties, or academies of ſciences, arts and languages. In conſequence of the great progreſs of knowledge, we enjoy all the conveniences of life in a much higher degree than the inhabitants of regions, on which nature has beſtowed greater riches. And ſuch is our ſuperiority of ſkill in aſtronomy and navigation, that, having conquered in a great meaſure, the dangers of the ocean, the commerce of the Europeans ſeems to be bounded only by the limits of the globe itſelf †.

" The ſtates of Europe, conſidered with reſpect to their intrinſic power and influence abroad, may be divided into three claſſes: France, Great-Britain, Auſtria, Pruſſia, and Ruſſia, belong to the firſt claſs. Secondary powers are thoſe

* Zimmermann, p. 16, 17.

† Zimmermann, p. 17—19.

of

of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Sardinia: the third claſs comprehends Portugal, Naples, and Sicily, Poland, the Joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the Electorate of Saxony, Switzerland, and Venice. For the laſt three centuries paſt, the cabinets of Europe, and chiefly that of France, have endeavoured to keep up a conſtant equilibrium between the different ſtates. France and England endeavoured to preſerve the balance of power in the weſt; Pruſſia, Auſtria, and Ruſſia, that in the eaſt, of Europe: Ruſſia has, by its late extraordinary increaſe of power, gained a great aſcendency in the north, after a ſucceſsful ſtruggle with the rival power of Sweden*."

GRAND DIVISIONS of EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degree weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt longitude from London; and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; on the eaſt by Aſia; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean Sea which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America: being 3000 miles long from Cape St. Vincent in the weſt, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-eaſt; and 2500 broad from north to ſouth, from the north Cape in Norway to Cape Caya or Metapar in the Morea, the moſt ſouthern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates.

	Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief City.	Diſt. & Bearing from London.	Diff. of Time from London.	Religions.
					Miles.	H. M.	
British Empire	England	380	300	London	* * *	* * *	Calviniſts, Luth. &c.
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Calviniſts, &c.
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	270 N.W.	0 26 aft.	Calviniſts and Pap.
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540 N.	0 24 bef.	Lutherans
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500 N. E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	750 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburgh	1140 N. E.	2 4 bef.	Greek Church
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw	760 E.	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. and Calv.
	K. Pr. Dom.	609	350	Berlin	540 E.	0 49 bef.	Luth. and Calv.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef.	Pap. Luth. and Calv.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E.	1 4 bef.	Papiſts
Netherlands.	Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180 E.	0 18 bef.	Calviniſts
	Flanders	200	200	Bruſſels	180 S. E.	0 16 bef.	Papiſts
	France	600	500	Paris	200 S. E.	0 9 bef.	Papiſts
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Papiſts
	Portugal	300	100	Liſbon	850 S. W.	0 38 aft.	Papiſts
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern, Coire, &c.	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calvin. and Papiſts.
Italy	Several ſmall ſtates	Piedmont, Montſerrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuſcany, &c.					
		Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.					
	Popedom	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	0 52 bef.	Papiſts
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	Papiſts
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	780 S. E.	1 17 bef.	Pap. and Proteſtants
Turkey in Europe.	Danubian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople	1320 S. E.	1 58 bef.	Mahometans, and Greek Church.
	Lit. Tartary†	380	240	Precop	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 37 bef.	

* Zimmermann, p. 21, 22.

† This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Ruſſia, for the particulars of which, ſee RUSSIA.

Exclusive of the British isles, before mentioned, Europe contains the following principal islands:

	Islands.	Chief Towns.	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean.	Iceland	Skalholt,	Denmark.
Baltic Sea.	Zealand, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm,	— —	Denmark.
	Gothland, Aland, Rugen,	— —	Sweden,
	Osel, Dagho,	— —	Russia.
	Usedom, Wollin,	— —	Prussia.
Mediterranean Sea.	Ivica,	Ivica,	Spain.
	Majorca,	Majorca,	Ditto.
	Minorca,	Port Mahon	Ditto.
	Corsica,	Bastia,	France.
	Sardinia,	Cagliari,	King of Sardinia
	Sicily,	Palermo	King of Two Sicilies.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice.	Lusiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia,	— —	Venice.
Archipelago and Levant Seas.	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece.	— —	Turkey.

DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Danish Majesty's dominions with the most northerly situations, and divide them into four parts: 1st, East and West Greenland, Iceland, and the islands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and 4th, his German territories.

The dimensions of these countries may be seen in the following table.

Denmark.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Denmark Proper	North Jutland	9,600	155	98	Wyburg.
	South Jutland, or Sleswiek,	2,115	70	63	Sleswick.
Islands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea.	Zealand,	1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN, N. Lat. 55--41, E. Long. 12--50
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odensee.
	Falster and Langland,	220	27	12	Nikoping. Naxkaw.
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alsen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona,	39	14	5	Stege.
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Rostcomby.
In the North Seas,	Iceland Island,	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Danish Lapland,	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.
Westphalia,	Oldenburg,	1260	62	32	Oldenburg.
Lower Saxony,	Stormar	1000	52	32	Gluckstadt
	Danish Holstein.				
	Total	163,041			

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The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we ſhall proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND.

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions; or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by ſir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and raggedneſs of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fiſh and fowl are ſaid to forſake the coaſt in winter. The Ruſſians of Archangel have formed, within the laſt 30 years, ſettlements for hunting in ſeveral places of the iſland of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis or northern lights reflected from the ſnow, enable them to purſue the chace during the long winter's night that reigns in thoſe gloomy regions, and they take a great number of ſea-lions which ſerve them for food. There is a whale-fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſt. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND

LIES between the meridian of London, and 50 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 ſtated inhabitants: Mr. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance between the aſpect, manners, and dreſs of thoſe natives, and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they differ but little, after all the pains which the Daniſh and German miſſionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low in ſtature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not ſo tall. The hair of their heads is long, ſtrait, and of a black colour; but they have ſeldom any beards, becauſe it is their conſtant practice to root them out. They have high breaſts and broad ſhoulders, eſpecially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can uſe their hands with ſkill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but are good humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their moſt agreeable food is the fleſh of rein-deer; but that is now ſcarce among them, and their beſt proviſions are fiſh, ſeals, and ſea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which ſtands in the houſe in a great copper veſſel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fiſh bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping diſh. The men make their hunting and fiſhing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with ſkins. The men hunt and fiſh, but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themſelves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity only to draw the ſeal upon the ſhore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and alſo the curriers to dreſs the pelts, and make clothes, ſhoes, and boots, out of them;

ſo that they are likewiſe both ſhoemakers and taylors. The women alſo build and repair the houſes and tents, ſo far as relate to the maſonry, the men doing only the carpenters work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of this country, ſays, that in their longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot, from the long continuance of the ſun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a moſt improveable fiſhery upon their coaſt; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting, in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing ſeals.

CURIOSITIES.] The taking of whales in the ſeas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. Theſe pieces of ice are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 13 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kinds of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords. His tongue is about 18 feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horſe hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone. The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones, and of no uſe. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is uſually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head, but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale ſpout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall*, when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat; ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monſter, finding himſelf wounded, runs ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line faſt enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. As ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber extract the oil, if they have conveniencies on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. The Dutch and the Engliſh are very ſucceſsful in this fiſhery.

ICELAND.

THIS iſland, which receives its name from the great maſſes of ice that are ſeen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. It extends four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and ſixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 ſquare miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland obſerved ſomething riſen and flaming in the ſea, to the ſouth of Grinbourg, at eight miles diſtant from the rocks des Oiſeaux, which afterwards was found to be a new iſland. The fact is authentic, but its dimenſions and ſituation

are not well aſcertained. The information brought by the laſt ſhip from thence, was, that the iſland was ſtill increaſing, and that great quantities of fire iſſued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, ſettled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there inhabitants who were Chriſtians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is ſaid, that the Norwegians alſo found among them Iriſh books, bells, and croſiers: and it is conjectured, that the people who were there, when the Norwegians arrived in the iſland, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at laſt obliged to ſubmit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became ſubject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at firſt governed by an admiral, who was ſent there every year to make the neceſſary regulations, but that mode has now been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is ſtyled *Stiftſamtmann*, and who conſtantly reſides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes. The plague carried off many thouſands, from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have alſo been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be ſaid to be in want of neceſſary food, yet the country has ſeveral times been viſited by great famines. Theſe have been chiefly occaſioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the graſs from growing, and puts an entire ſtop to their fiſhing. The ſmall-pox has likewiſe been very fatal here; for, in the years 1707 and 1708, that diſeaſe deſtroyed 16,000 perſons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-ſized, and well-made, though not very ſtrong. They are an honeſt, well-intentioned people, moderately induſtrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is ſeldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hoſpitality, and exerciſe it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fiſhing, and the care of their cattle. On the coaſts the men employ their time in fiſhing both winter and ſummer; and the women prepare the fiſh, and ſew and ſpin. The men alſo prepare leather, work at ſeveral mechanic trades, and ſome few work in gold and ſilver. They likewiſe manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly ſtrong attachment to their native country, and think themſelves no where elſe ſo happy. An Icelander, therefore, ſeldom ſettles in Copenhagen, though the moſt advantageous conditions ſhould be offered him. Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, without previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection: and they are always thankful for their preſervation, when they have paſſed the danger. When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſts in reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſtanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſionally join in chorus. The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but it is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poorer women dreſs in the coarſe cloth called Wadmal, and always wear black: thoſe who are in better circumſtances wear broad cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt. The houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad: in ſome places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raiſed of lava, with moſs ſtuffed between the

lava. Their roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters, or ſometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expenſive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the earth, between three ſtones; and the ſmoke iſſues from a ſquare hole in the roof. Their food principally conſiſts of dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is ſo ſcarce among them, that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland, are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skalholt (the capital of the iſland), and thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſland is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skalholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly ſalary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, excluſive of what they have from their congregations.

LANGUAGE.] The language in Iceland is the ſame as that formerly ſpoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preſerved ſo pure, that any Icelanders underſtand their moſt ancient traditional hiſtories.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is ſaid that poetry formerly flouriſhed very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrimſon, Kormak Ogmundſon, Glum Geirſon, and Thorlief Jarlaa were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in uſe till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and moſt probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Chriſtian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only conſiſts of ſixteen letters, was found inſufficient. The firſt Icelandic biſhop, Iſleif, founded a ſchool at Skalholt; and ſoon after they founded four other ſchools, in which the youth were inſtructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and ſome parts of theoretic philoſophy. And from the introduction of the Chriſtian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became ſubect to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the ſciences were cultivated and held in eſteem.

But this period of time ſeems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period ſince. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had conſiderable knowledge in morality, philoſophy, natural hiſtory, and aſtronomy. Moſt of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and ſome of them have been printed. Sir Joſeph Banks preſented one hundred and ſixty-two Icelandic manuſcripts to the Britiſh Muſeum. That gentleman viſited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who publiſhed an account of their voyage, obſerves, that he found more knowledge among the lower claſs in Iceland than is to be met with in moſt other places; that many of them could repeat the works of ſome of their poets by heart; and that a peaſant was ſeldom to be found, who, beſides being well inſtructed in the principles of religion, was not alſo acquainted with the hiſtory of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional hiſtories, that being one of their principal amuſements.

John Areſon, biſhop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieſſon, a native of Sweden, in eſtabliſhing a printing-preſs in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the firſt book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidaroſienſe. He alſo printed an eccleſiaſtical manual, Luther's catechiſm, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic Bible in 1584. A new privileged

privileged printing-office has lately been eſtabliſhed at Hrappſey in this iſland, at which ſeveral valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this iſland is ſituated ſo far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more known than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have ſeveral times laid the country almoſt deſolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal conſequences. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. Of theſe burning mountains Heckla is the beſt known, eſpecially to foreigners. This mountain is ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland, about four miles from the ſea-coaſt, and is divided into three points at the top, the higheſt of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the ſea. It has frequently ſent forth flames and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland to the diſtance of 180 Engliſh miles. The laſt eruption of mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded alſo from it in December 1771, and in September 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

Amongſt all the curioſities in Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot ſpouting water-ſprings with which this iſland abounds. The hot ſprings at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carlſbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and ſeveral others found in Italy, are conſidered as very remarkable: but, excepting in the laſt mentioned country, the water no where becomes ſo hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown ſo high as the hot ſpouting water-ſprings in Iceland. All thoſe water-works that have been contrived with ſo much art, and at ſo enormous an expence, cannot by any means be compared with theſe. The water works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greateſt amongſt all the French water-works, caſt up a thin column eighty feet into the air: while ſome ſprings in Iceland ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of ſeveral hundred feet. Theſe ſprings are of unequal degrees of heat. From ſome, the water flows gently as from other ſprings, and it is then called a bath: from others, it ſpouts boiling water with a great noiſe, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil does not remember ever to have obſerved it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyſer, Rœynum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the laſt place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is common for ſome of the ſpouting-ſprings to ceaſe, and others to riſe up in their ſtead. Frequent earthquakes, and ſubterranean noiſes heard at the time, cauſe great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In ſeveral of theſe hot ſprings, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot into which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become luke-warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and it is eſteemed very wholeſome when drank by the human ſpecies.

The largeſt of all the ſpouting-ſprings in Iceland is called Geyſer. It is about two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a noiſe is heard, like the ruſhing of a torrent, precipitating itſelf from ſtupendous rocks. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed, that it ſpouts to the height of ſixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at ſome times than at others: when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmoſt height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Baſaltine

Baſaltine pillars are likewiſe very common in Iceland, which are ſuppoſed to have been produced by ſubterraneous fires. The lower ſort of people imagine theſe pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made uſe of ſupernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides, and are from four to ſix feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places, they are only ſeen here and there among the lava in the mountains; but, in ſome other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immenſe maſſes of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickneſs, is ſeparated by the winds, and leſs dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often ſeen fifty and more feet above water, and is at leaſt nine times the ſame depth below water. Theſe prodigious maſſes of ice are frequently left in ſhoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that ſtate remain many years undiſſolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmoſphere for many miles round. When many ſuch lofty and bulky maſſes of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them is ſo much chafed, and preſſed with ſuch violence together, that it takes fire; which circumſtance has occaſioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice cauſed ſo violent a cold in 1753 and 1754, that horſes and ſheep dropped down dead on account of it, as well as for want of food: horſes were obſerved to feed upon dead cattle, and the ſheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. The Icelanders attempt to deſtroy theſe intruders as ſoon as they get ſight of them; and ſometimes they aſſemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire arms, they are obliged to make uſe of ſpears on theſe occaſions. The government encourages the natives to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their ſkins are alſo purchaſed for the king, and are not allowed to be ſold to any other perſon.

It is extraordinary that no wood grows ſucceſsfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole iſland, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all that are in the iſland.

Trade.] The commerce of this iſland is monopolized by a Daniſh company. The ſoil upon the ſea-coaſts is tolerably good for paſture; and though there is not any conſiderable town in the whole iſland, the Iceſlanders have ſeveral frequented ports. Their exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen-cloth, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox-furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk; excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

Strength and revenue.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO or FERRO ISLANDS.

So called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. long. from London. The ſpace of this cluſter extends about 60 miles in length,

length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000, add little to the revenues of Denmark.

NORWAY.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural ſignification of Norway is, the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the ſouth by the entrance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the weſt and North, by the northern ocean; and on the eaſt it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country ſo little known to the reſt of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimenſions with preciſion.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its poſition towards the ſea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, with intenſe ſeverity, to the middle of April; the waters being all the time frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountains which ſeparate Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northerly parts of this country called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe that they are but little known. At Bergen, the longeſt day conſiſts of abour 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt of about five. In ſummer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that in the midſt of their darkneſs the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they can carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that it has been ſaid the inhabitants lived ſo long as to be tired of life, and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported to a leſs ſalubrious air. Sudden thaws and ſnow-falls have, however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway contains a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north: to paſs that of Hardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; and to paſs others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the higheſt mountain in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and that are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing, at different ſtages, houſes accomodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a moſt ſurpriſing landſcape. The activity of the natives, in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and

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when he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf. The caverns that are to be met with in theſe mountains are more wonderful than thoſe, perhaps, in any other part of the world. One of them, called Dolſteen, was, in 1750, viſited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted: that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts, which furniſh foreigners with maſts, beams, planks, and boards; and ſerve beſide for all domeſtic uſes; particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the founderies. The timber growing here are fir and pine, elm, aſh, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, eel or alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comol or ſloe-tree, haſel, elder, ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden tree, and willows. The ſums which Norway receives for timber are very conſiderable; the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes; which afford them not only the conveniency of floating down their timber, but of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granites, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtone. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Koningſberg; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the royal muſeum at Copenhagen. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper-mines at Roraas is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway produces quickſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, coal, vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the mannfactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and lakes in this country are well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. In the year 1702, the noble family-ſeat of Borge, near Fredricſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathom in depth; and its ſite was inſtantly filled with water, and formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON QUADRUPEDS, FOWLS, AND FISHES.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the ſox, the lynx, the glutton, the leming, the ermin, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and in winter, ſocial; and the fleſh of it taſtes like veniſon. The hares are ſmall; and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious; they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries;

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nor can we much credit the extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous: they are of the cat kind, and have claws like tygers; they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheep-folds, where they make dreadful havock. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of. The glutton, otherwiſe called the erven, or vielfras, reſembles a turn-ſpit dog; with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth: his fur which is variegated, is ſo precious, that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt: he is bold, and ſo ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburthens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe-ſtanding trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We ſhall mention the beavers in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The alks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is that of a large duck, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. Many kinds of thruſhes reſide in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour; his eye reſembles that of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that it has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the ſea, or fiſh-eagle, is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on aquatic food; and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aërial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway; and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them ſerviceable to the human race: theſe are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bringing away the birds and their eggs: the latter are nutritive food, and are ſometimes parboiled in vinegar; the fleſh is eaten by the peaſants, who generally reliſh it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern diſtricts, are trained up to be aſſiſtants to theſe birdmen in ſeizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and ſeas are aſtoniſhingly fruitful in all fiſh that are found on the ſea-coaſts of Europe. Stock-fiſh innumerable, which are dried upon the rocks without ſalting. Some fiſhes in thoſe ſeas have their peculiarities. The haacmoren is a ſpecies of ſhark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three caſks of train oil. The tuella-flynder is an exceſſively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who had fallen over-board, to keep him from riſing. The ſeaſon for herring-fiſhing is announced to fiſhermen by the ſpouting of water from the whales (of which ſeven different ſpecies are mentioned) in following the herring ſhoals. The large whale reſembles a cod, with ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly: they ſpout out the water, which they take in by inſpiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land-animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an

incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, wi h ſharp horns, or rather bones, on their beaks, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth, and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks. The coaſt of Norway may be ſaid to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the ſhoals that come from under the ice at the north pole, and about the latitude of Iceland divide themſelves into three bodies; one of theſe ſupply the Weſtern Iſles and coaſts of Scotland, another directs its courſe round the eaſtern part of Great Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torſk-fiſhes follow them, and feed upon their ſpawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms water: theſe, eſpecially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and ſold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fiſhing on the coaſt of Norway. The ſea-devil is about ſix feet in length, and is ſo called from its monſtrous appearance and voracity. The ſea-ſcorpion is likewiſe of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is ſaid to be poiſonous.

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juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute; but the farmers and common people in Norway are much leſs oppreſſed than thoſe in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly reſembling the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artiſan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are few by profeſſion, who are hatters, ſhoe-makers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant is an artiſt and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians form a proper ſubject of contemplation even to a philoſopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle ſtate prolongs their ages ſurpriſingly. Though their dreſs is in many reſpects accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any cover upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour: and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm: they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions; frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended the deceaſed.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what will be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rixdollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers, for the uſe of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l. and till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we are to believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with thoſe of Denmark.

DENMARK.

DENMARK * PROPER, or JUTLAND, exclusive of the ISLANDS in the BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	240†	between	54 and 58 North latitude.
Breadth	114		8 and 11 East longitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. IT is divided on the north from Norway by the Scaggerac ſea, and from Sweden on the eaſt by the ſound; on the ſouth by Germany and the Baltic; and the German ſea divides it from Great Britain on the weſt.

Denmark proper is divided into two parts: the peninſula of Jutland, anciently called *Cimbria Cherſoneſus*, and the Iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the iſland of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubec, and Amſterdam. Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſoutherly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inhabitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and during the winter all their harbours are frozen up.

The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs, and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained ſuch a power over the farmers, and thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery; ſo that they were bought and ſold with the lands, and were eſteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders in Sleſwick and Holſtein have the power of life and death. The ſituation of the farmers has, indeed, been made ſomewhat more agreeable by ſome modern edicts; but they are ſtill, if ſuch an expreſſion may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are diſpoſed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark, or in Holſtein, happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate

* See Mallet's Denmark, page 1 to 18. vol. v.

† Meaning where longeſt and broadeſt, a method which is the practice of other writers on the ſubject. Great allowances muſt therefore be made in moſt countries, as the reader will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for inſtance, is 114 miles where broadeſt, though in ſundry other parts it is not 50.

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advantageouſly, as ſoon as he has performed the toilſome taſk, and expects to reap the profits of what he has ſown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he ſhall think proper to give him. This has been ſo long the practice in this country, that it neceſſarily throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced: the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty. But if the farmers had a ſecurity for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at preſent, and a much greater number of people ſupported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage, about 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of their horned cattle 30,000. They have alſo ſheep, hogs, and game; and the ſea-coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By a numeration made, in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt, in Weſtphalia, they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The moſt accurate account of the population, is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee, by which

Jutland numbered	358,136	Iceland	46,201
Denmark Iceland	283,466	Duchy of Sleſwick	243,605
Funen	143,988	Duchy of Holſtein	134,665
Norway	723,141	Oldenburgh	62,854
Iſlands of Ferro	4,754	Delmenhorſt	16,217
		Sum Total,	2,017,027

However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions; yet, every thing conſidered, it is greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated ſtate of his poſſeſſions. But the trade of Denmark hath been ſo ſhackled, and her merchants ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of her government, that this kingdom is at preſent one of the moſt indigent ſtates in Europe. Theſe circumſtances prevent Denmark from being ſo populous as it might be, if the adminiſtration of government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in agriculture, and other arts. The empreſs of Ruſſia, in 1773, ceded to the king of Denmark that portion of Holſtein which deſcended to the line of Holſtein-Gottorp, in exchange for Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt, which ſhe gave to the prince of Lubeck. This exchange is favourable to Denmark, both as to trade and population.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity; but by a continued ſeries of tyranny and oppreſſion, their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterpriſing, and warlike people, they are become indolent and timid. They value themſelves extremely upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhew. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation. The Danes, like other northern nations are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now begin

begin to visit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; besides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. These dioceses are governed by bishops, whose profession is to superintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a distinction of their ecclesiastical dress, for they have neither cathedral nor ecclesiastical courts, nor the smallest concern with civil affairs. They are paid by the state, as all the other church-lands were appropriated to the goverument at the Reformation.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but High Dutch and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a necessary part of education. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement. Denmark has two universities, that of Copenhagen, and that of Kiel; two academical colleges at Soroe and Odensee, and thirty-two other great schools in the principal towns. There is at Copenhagen a royal society of sciences, an historical society for the study of northern history, another of Icelandic history and literature, an academy for painting and architecture, a college of physicians and surgeons, and another society of sciences at Drontheim *.

The university of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous support of 328 students; these funds are said to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars: but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borichius, and the Bartholines; the science of botany owes great obligations to the celebrated Christian Oeder, to whom, through the liberality of his monarch, we are indebted for the Flora Danica. In speaking of the publications on natural history, it would be unpardonable to omit mentioning the most splendid work of the kind ever produced in any nation; it is a collection of rare shells, in two volumes folio, engraved and coloured by Francis Michael Regenfus, at the royal expence. "The first volume, which is the only one I have seen, contains a short account of the collections of natural history, and particularly of shells in Denmark; a preliminary discourse on conchology, with a detail of the several authors who have written on the subject, and their different systems, and 78 complete and delicately-coloured figures, in 12 plates, accompanied with scientific descriptions in the Latin, French, and German languages†." The round tower and Christian's haven display the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus: the Danes begin to make some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama; and several of their learned men have lately employed their researches on the history and antiquities of the North.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is now situated on the fine island of Zealand, was originally a settlement of sailors, and first founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century, but it is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others, belonging to the Calvinists and other persuasions, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by some public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in their lanes chiefly of timber. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which

* Zimmermann p. 79.

† Coxe's Travels into Poland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. 2. p. 566, 568.

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admits of only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid to exceed that of Venice. The road for the ſhipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or ſea ſervice; and the number of forces is too large for the kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the city at midnight with great ſafety. Indeed, it is uſually as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

The apartments of the palace at Copenhagen are grand, and the tapeſtry in many of them beautiful, particularly the ſtory of Eſther, and an aſſortment of wild beaſts, after the manner of Quida. A colonnade at each extremity forms the ſtables, which for their extent and beauty are equal to any in Europe. The fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty lies about 20 Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericſburg. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like moſt of the ancient reſidences of princes, for defence againſt an enemy. It was built by Chriſtian the IVth. and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuſcan and Doric pillars, and on the ſummit of the building are ſpires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very ſplendid, though furniſhed in the antique taſte. The Knights' hall is of great length. The tapeſtry repreſents the wars of Denmark, and the cieling is a moſt minute and laboured performance in ſculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of ſilver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even beſieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithſtanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The late unhappy queen Matilda ſpent much of her time at this palace, during the king's tour through Europe. About two miles from Elſineur is another ſmall royal palace, flat roofed, with 12 windows in front, ſaid to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is ſhewn the very ſpot where, according to that tradition, that prince was poiſoned. Jagerſburg is a park which contains a royal country ſeat, called the Hermitage, remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments, and the quaintneſs of its furniture; particularly a machine which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1732.

Elſineur is well-built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and, with reſpect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is ſtrongly fortified on the land-ſide; and towards the ſea is defended by a ſtrong fort, containing ſeveral batteries of long cannon. Here all veſſels pay a toll, and in paſſing lower their top-ſails.

Commerce.] Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burthens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty alſo ſupply a great variety of timber, and other materials for ſhipbuilding; and ſome of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among theſe, beſides fir, and other timber, are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtock-fiſh, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Daniſh dominions, are conſequently ranked under the head of exports. To theſe we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are ſalt, wine, brandy, and ſilk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourſe with England, from whence they import broad-cloths,

clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England.

Nothing ſhews the commercial ſpirit of the Danes in a more favourable light than their eſtabliſhments in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies. In 1612 Chriſtian IV. of Denmark eſtabliſhed an Eaſt India Company at Copenhagen; and ſoon after four ſhips ſailed from thence to the Eaſt Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and in 1617 they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort invited numbers of them to ſettle here; ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt-India Company were ſoon rich enough to pay to their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix-dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620 endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice trade at Ceylon; but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt-India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the cloſe of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh Eaſt-India Company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcription for enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt-India Company, with vaſt privileges; and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I ſhall juſt mention, that the Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the ſmall iſland of St. John, in the Weſt Indies, which are free ports and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg, on the coaſt of Guinea; and carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark Proper affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. It contains ſeveral good paintings and a fine collection of coins, particularly thoſe of the Conſuls in the time of the Roman Republic, and of the Emperors after the ſeat of empire was divided into the Eaſt and Weſt. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clock-work, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, both in the form of a hunting horn: that of gold ſeems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half, and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum*; which, they ſay, was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburg, by a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion, that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who reigned in 1448. Several veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments; ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals, ancient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburg and Sleſwick, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great-Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh.

The greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean thoſe ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquarians and hiſtorians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, was known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited ſpecimens of ſeveral of thoſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] The ancient conſtitution of Denmark was originally upon the ſame plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the ſenate where he preſided, was inveſted with the executive power. He likewiſe commanded the army, and decided all the diſputes which aroſe between his ſubjects. The legiſlative power, together with the right of election of the king, was veſted in the ſtates; who were compoſed, firſt, of the order of nobility, and ſecondly, the order of the citizens and farmers: and after the Chriſtian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were alſo admitted, not only to be an order of the ſtates, but to have ſeats likewiſe in the ſenate. Theſe orders had their reſpective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other; the crown had alſo its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue ariſing out of lands, which were appropriated to its ſupport. This conſtitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjuſted; ſo that the nobles very ſoon aſſumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppreſſed the people, as the national aſſemblies were not regularly held to redreſs their grievances. And when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a ſhare in the civil government, they far ſurpaſſed the nobility in pride and ambition. The repreſentatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prorogatives, and to tyrannize over the people. Chriſtian the Second, by endeavouring, in an imprudent manner, to ſtem the torrent of their oppreſſion, loſt his crown and his liberty; but Chriſtian the Third, uniting with the nobles and the ſenate, deſtroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppreſſion of the common people by the nobility ſtill remained. At length, in the reign of Frederick the Third, the people, inſtead of exerting themſelves to remedy the defects of the conſtitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were ſo infatuated as to make the king deſpotic, in hopes of rendering themſelves leſs ſubject to the tyranny of the nobility. A ſeries of unſucceſsful wars had brought the nation in general into ſo miſerable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people, upon this, threw their eyes towards the king for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg reminded the people that the commons were no more *ſlaves* to the lords. This was the watch-word, which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, ſpeaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *Slavery*; the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices, and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, ſubmitted with the beſt grace they could to confirm what had been done.

On

On the 18th of October, 1660, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, ſigned each a ſeparate act; by which they conſented that the crown ſhould be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and by which they inveſted the king with abſolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the ſucceſſion and the regency, in caſe of a minority. This renunciation of their rights, ſubſcribed by the firſt nobility, is ſtill preſerved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family; a relic which perpetuates the memory of the humbled inſolence of the nobles, and the hypocriſy of the prince, who, to gratify his revenge againſt them, perſuaded the people that his only wiſhes were to repair a decayed edifice, and then excited them to pull it to the ground, cruſhing themſelves under its ruins.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of their privileges; but he took no method to relieve thoſe poor people who had been the inſtruments of inveſting him with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age. When the revolution in the reign of Frederick the Third had been effected, the king re-united in his perſon all the rights of the ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to entruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects. The ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. What they call the German provinces have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holſtein, is holden at Gluckſtadt; and for the duchy of Sleſwick, in the town of that name.

As to matters of importance, the king for the moſt part decides in his council, the members of which are named and diſplaced at his will. It is in this council, that the laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the royal authority; and that any great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed, and approved or rejected by the king. It is here likewiſe, or in the cabinet, that he grants privileges, and decides upon the moſt important affairs of his dominions.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is ſuppoſed to be preſent to adminiſter juſtice in the ſupreme court of his kingdom; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, and the judges the ſame in giving their opinion. Every year the king is preſent at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of theſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the adminiſtration of juſtice in Denmark; but it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever have juſtice againſt the nobility, or one who is favoured by the court. If the laws are ſo clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through the favour of the miniſter, obtains an order from the king to ſtop all the law-proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark was publiſhed by Chriſtiian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes ſince publiſhed, and is nearly the ſame with that publiſhed in Norway. Theſe laws are very juſt and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial conſequences to the people. But as the king can alter the laws, and ſupport his miniſters and favourites in any acts of violence and injuſtice, the people undergo a great degree of oppreſſion, and have abundant reaſon to regret the tameneſs and

ſervility with which their liberties have been ſurrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

PUNISHMENTS.] The common method of execution in Denmark is beheading and hanging: in ſome caſes, as an aggravation of the puniſhment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the ſentence is executed. For the moſt atrocious crimes, ſuch as the murder of a father or mother, huſband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital puniſhments are not common in Denmark: and the other principal modes of puniſhments are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the raſp-houſe, to houſes of correction, and to public labour and impriſonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

POLITICAL AND NATURAL INTERESTS OF DENMARK.] After the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, his court ſeemed for ſome time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the late war; but never could get free from French influence, notwithſtanding his connections with Great Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army; but his family-diſputes with Ruſſia concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendency which the French had obtained over the Swedes, not to mention other circumſtances, did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation; eſpecially about the time when the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded. His preſent Daniſh majeſty's plan ſeemed, ſoon after his acceſſion, to be that of forming his dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. But ſundry events which have ſince happened, and the general feebleneſs of his adminiſtration, have prevented any further expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at leaſt in any great degree, during the preſent reign.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enable her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe has been particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her naval ſtores.

Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power is, when the Baltic (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Daniſh majeſty's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects: the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are taxed. Paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expences of fortifications are defrayed by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The internal taxes of Denmark are uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait of three miles between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip and the value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch, being

being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expence of light-houſes on the coaſt; and the Swedes who command the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time refuſed to pay it: but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The firſt treaty relative to it was by the Emperor Charles V. on behalf of his ſubjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elſineur, a town ſituated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic ſea, and about 20 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſineur, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000 ſterling yearly.

The following is a liſt of the king's revenues, excluſive of his private eſtates.

	Rix-dollars at 4s. each.
Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax,	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, exciſe, &c.	950,000
Cuſtom-houſe duties,	154,000
Duties of the Sound	200,000
Duties of Jutland, from ſalt-pits,	27,000
Tythes and poll-tax of Norway,	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Chriſtianſand, and Chriſtiana,	160,000
Other tolls,	552,000
Revenues from mines	300,000
Revenue from Sleſwick, Holſtein, &c.	690,000
Taxes on acorns, and maſts from beech,	20,000
Tolls on the Weſer,	7,5000
Poſt-office,	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro	35,000
Farms of Bornholm	14,800
Oyſter Fiſhery,	22,000
Stamp Paper	40,000
Sum total	5,012,300
In Engliſh money,	1,002,460

By a liſt of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to £.454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of their people in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they kept up with great care. The preſent military force of Denmark conſiſts of near 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greateſt part of which conſiſts of a militia, who receive no pay, but are regiſtered on the army liſt, and every Sunday exerciſed. The regular troops are about 20,000, and moſtly foreigners, or officered by foreigners; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to truſt his ſecurity in the hands of thoſe he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown: great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter; and in Denmark the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money. The fleet of Denmark is compoſed of 36 ſhips of the line, and 18 frigates; but many of them being old, and wanting great repairs, they cannot fit out more than 25 ſhips upon the greateſt emergency. This fleet is generally ſtationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, ſtore-houſes, and all the materials neceſſary for the uſe of the marine. They have near 40,000 regiſtered ſeamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without

leave, nor ſerve on board a merchantman without permiſſion from the admiralty; 4000 of theſe are kept in conſtant pay and employed in the dock-yards; their pay however, ſcarcely amounts to nine ſhillings a month, but then they have a ſort of uniform, with ſome proviſions and lodgings allowed for themſelves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] Theſe are two; that of the *Elephant*, and of *Daneburg:* the former was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. and is deemed the moſt honourable; its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-coloured watered ribband; worn like the George in England: the number of its members, beſides the ſovereign, are thirty. The badges of the Daneburg order, which is ſaid to be of the higheſt antiquity, conſiſt of a white ribband with red edges, worn over the left ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat, ſurrounded with the motto, *pietate & juſtitia*.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark to a very extraordinary phænomenon, the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo-Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt in all other parts of the European continent. Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, has adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can, however, collect enough from him to conclude, that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military atchievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia * or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the firſt chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people whom they commanded were ſo blended, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This, undoubtedly, was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders.

Thus the terms Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature, under that prince, throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial: that ſo far back as the year of Chriſt 500, they inſulted all the ſea-coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the hiſtory of Denmark and that of England under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

In the eleventh century, under Canute the Great, Denmark may be ſaid to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give ſanction to the

* By Scythia may be underſtood all thoſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia, now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars, whoſe inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued, ſo late as the 13th century, to iſſue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more ſouthern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence by ſir William Temple, and other hiſtorians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouſe of Europe*.

expreſ-

expreſſion. Few intereſting events preceded the year 1385, when Margaret mounted that throne; and partly by her addreſs, and partly by hereditary right, ſhe formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was ſtyled the Semiramis of the North. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one ſovereign, was diſſolved; though Norway continued annexed to Denmark. In 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtian II. king of Denmark, one of the moſt complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and, having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. gave a looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden, for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederick, duke of Holſtein, was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of his cruel nephew, who openly embraced the opinions of Luther, and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark by that wiſe and politic prince Chriſtian III.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in 1629, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league, formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but, though brave in his own perſon, was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon Frederic III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, perſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden, which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Fredricſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter he marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops, took Odenſee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to beſiege Copenhagen. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interpoſed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roſchild; by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic ſought to elude thoſe ſevere terms; but Charles took Cronenburgh, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land. The ſteady intrepid conduct of Frederic, under theſe misfortunes, endeared him to his ſubjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swedes. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, who ſhewed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded, by which the iſland of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the iſland of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the moſt imminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became abſolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was ſucceeded in 1670, by his ſon Chriſtian V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Sconen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. Chriſtian obſtinately continued the war, till he was defeated at the battle of Landſcroon: and

and having almoſt exhauſted his dominions in military operations, and being abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to ſign a treaty, on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtian afterwards became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains; and, after a variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was ſucceeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein; and probably muſt have become maſter of that Duchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother-in-law the duke of Holſtein. Charles probably would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great ſervice againſt the French in the wars of Queen Anne.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon the Swediſh Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf by ſeizing great part of the ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general, count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Tonningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark with a moſt imbittered ſpirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the ſiege of Fredericſhall, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in conſequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having two years before ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire. His ſon Chriſtian Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. made no other uſe of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guarantying the Pragmatic ſanction *, Chriſtian ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. He had, in 1738, a diſpute with his Britannic majeſty about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein Lawenburg, and which Chriſtian ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt; in which Chriſtian, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predilection for his German dominions, who agreed to pay Chriſtian a ſubſidy of 70,000l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after, he ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without his

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the Houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

leave

leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtian had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to his then Swediſh majeſty. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken: but whatever Chriſtian's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people. His ſon, Frederic V. in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. It was by his intervention that the treaty of Cloſter-ſeven was concluded between the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His ſon, Chriſtian VII. was born the 29th of January 1749; and married his preſent Britannic majeſty's youngeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at firſt a very promiſing appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, and whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. When the princeſs Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe received her with all the appearance of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her, that ſhe would take every opportunity, as a mother, to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct, ſhe became the depoſitary of all the young queen's ſecrets, whilſt at the ſame time, it is ſaid, ſhe placed people about the king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen; and, under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her of the exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and perſuaded her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen gently reproaching him with his conduct, his mother-in-law endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon good terms with the king. The young queen alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This ſtung the old queen; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with ſchemes of revenge. But her views of this kind at firſt appeared the more difficult to carry into execution, becauſe the king had diſplaced ſeveral of her friends who were about the court, who had been increaſing the national debt in times of the moſt profound peace, and who were rioting on the ſpoils of the public. However, ſhe at length found means to gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was obſerved that Brandt and Struenſee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a miniſter, and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were ſupported by her. This opened a new ſcene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the diſcarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and ſhe became the head of the party. Struenſee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the adminiſtration of the public affairs at once, which ſhould have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies among thoſe whoſe intereſt it was that things ſhould continue upon the ſame footing that they had been for ſome time before. After this, queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter; but as ſoon as the queen-dowager ſaw her, ſhe, with a malicious ſmile, declared that the

child had all the features of Struenſee: on which her friends publiſhed it among the people, that the queen muſt have had an intrigue with Struenſee, which was corroborated by the queen's often ſpeaking with this miniſter in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated; and it was aſſerted, that the governing party had formed a deſign to ſuperſede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon; and that Struenſee was to be her prime-miniſter. Whatever Struenſee did to reform the abuſes of the late miniſtry was repreſented to the people as ſo many attacks upon, and attempts to deſtroy, the government of the kingdom. By ſuch means the people began to be greatly incenſed againſt this miniſter: and as he alſo wanted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were ſome of the creatures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe that it was the deſign of Struenſee to change the whole ſyſtem of government. It muſt be admitted, that this miniſter ſeems in many reſpects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his paſſions: his principles alſo appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends upon the proper meaſures to be taken for effectuating their deſigns: and it was at length reſolved to ſurpriſe the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to ſign an order, which was to be prepared in readineſs, for committing the perſons before mentioned to ſeparate priſons, to accuſe them of high-treaſon in general, and in particular of a deſign to poiſon or dethrone the king; and if that could not be properly ſupported, by torture or otherwiſe, to procure witneſſes to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struenſee. This was an undertaking of ſo hazardous a nature, that the wary count Moltke and moſt of the queen-dowager's friends excuſed themſelves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However, the queen-dowager at laſt procured a ſufficient number of active inſtruments for the executions of her deſigns. On the 16th of January, 1772, a maſked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady, and counſellor Struenſee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as uſual one country dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struenſee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the ſame morning, prince Frederic, who had alſo been at the ball, went with the queen dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichſtedt and count Rantzau. They ordered his majeſty's valet-de-chambre to awake him, and in the midſt of the ſurpriſe that this intruſion excited, they informed him, that queen Matilda and the two Struenſees were at that inſtant buſy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately compel him to ſign: and that the only means to prevent ſo imminent a danger, was to ſign the orders which they had brought with them for arreſting the queen and her accomplices. It is ſaid that the king was not eaſily prevailed upon to ſign theſe orders, but at length complied. Count Rantzau, and three officers, haſtened at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arreſted her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, conveyed to the caſtle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princeſs, attended by lady Moſtyn, and eſcorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struenſee and Brandt were alſo ſeized in their beds, and impriſoned in the citadel. Struenſee's brother, and moſt of the members of the late adminiſtration, were ſeized the ſame night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, aſſiſted by

by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers concerned in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic preſided, and a commiſſion of eight menbers, to examine the papers of the priſoners, and to commence a proceſs againſt them. The ſon of queen Matilda, the prince royal, now entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governeſs, under the ſuperintendency of the queen-dowager. Struenſee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorouſly treated in priſon; they both underwent frequent examinations, and at length received ſentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previouſly cut off. Struenſee at firſt abſolutely denied having any criminal intercourſe with the queen; but this he afterwards confeſſed: and though he is ſaid to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt were eſteemed notorious, and his confeſſions full and explicit. Beſide, no meaſures were adopted by the court of Great Britain to clear up the queen's character in this reſpect.

During the confinement of queen Matilda in the palace of Cronenburgh, ſhe inhabited the governor's apartment, and had permiſſion to walk upon the ſide-batteries, or upon the leads of the tower. She was uncertain of the fate that awaited her; and had great reaſon to apprehend, that the party which had occaſioned her arreſt meditated ſtill more violent meaſures. When the Engliſh miniſter at Copenhagen brought an order for her enlargement, which he had obtained by his ſpirited conduct, ſhe was ſo ſurprized with the unexpected intelligence, that ſhe inſtantly burſt into a flood of tears, embraced him in a tranſport of joy, and called him her deliverer. After a ſhort conference, the miniſter propoſed that her majeſty ſhould immediately embark on board of a ſhip that was waiting to carry her from a kingdom in which ſhe had experienced ſuch a train of misfortunes. But however anxious ſhe was to depart, one circumſtance checked the exceſs of her joy: a few months before her impriſonment, ſhe had been delivered of a princeſs, (as has already been related) whom ſhe ſuckled herſelf. The rearing of this child had been her only comfort; and ſhe had conceived a more than parental attachment to it, from its having been the conſtant companion of her miſery. The infant was at that period afflicted with the meaſles; and, having nurſed it with unceaſing ſolicitude, ſhe was deſirous of continuing her attention and care. All thoſe circumſtances had ſo endeared the child to her, rendered more ſuſceptible of tenderneſs in a priſon than in a court, that when an order for detaining the young princeſs was intimated to her, ſhe teſtified the ſtrongeſt emotions of grief, and could not, for ſome time, be prevailed upon to bid a final adieu. At length, after beſtowing repeated careſſes upon this darling object of her affection, ſhe retired to the veſſel in an agony of deſpair. She remained upon the deck, her eyes immoveably directed towards the palace of Cronenburgh, which contained her child, that had been ſo long her only comfort, until darkneſs intercepted the view. The veſſel having made but little way during night, at day break ſhe obſerved with fond ſatisfaction that the palace was ſtill viſible; and could not be perſuaded to enter the cabin as long as ſhe could diſcover the faineſt glimpſe of the battlements.

It is well known that her majeſty reſided in the city of Zell, in the electoral dominions of his Britannic majeſty, where ſhe was carried off by a malignant fever, on the 10th of May 1775, and in the ſixteenth day of her illneſs; aged 23 years, and 10 months.

Queen Matilda was naturally of a lively diſpoſition, until her misfortunes brought on a ſettled melancholy, which preyed upon her mind. In company ſhe endeavoured to diſſemble her ſorrows, and aſſume a chearfulneſs to which her heart was a

ſtranger. She became extremely fond of ſolitude; and, when alone, indulged her grief in the moſt bitter lamentations. She retained, to her laſt moments, the moſt unaffected attachment to her children in Denmark: with all the anxiety of a parent ſhe made repeated inquiries after them, and was delighted with receiving the minuteſt accounts of their health, amuſements, and education. Having obtained their portraits from Copenhagen, ſhe placed them in her moſt retired apartment, often apoſtrophized them as if they were preſent, and addreſſed them in the tendereſt manner *.

In 1780, his Daniſh majeſty acceded to the armed neutrality propoſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears to have ſuch a debility of underſtanding, as to diſqualify him for the proper management of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auſpices of the prince royal, ſome of the former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counterſigned by the prince royal †.

HIS DANISH MAJESTY's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empreſs of Ruſſia, (termed Ducal Holſtein) the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubeck: but on the 16th of November 1773, the Ducal Holſtein, with all the rights, privileges, and territorial ſovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holſtein Gottorp is joint ſovereign of great part of it now with the Daniſh monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of the Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well built town and fortreſs, but in a marſhy ſituation on the right of the Elbe, and has ſome foreign commerce.

Altena, a large, populous, and handſome town, of great traffic, is commodiouſly ſituated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built in that ſituation, that it might ſhare in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt India Company, the merchants alſo enjoying liberty of conſcience, great numbers flocked to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, in a geographical ſenſe, in Holſtein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holſtein called Stormar. It has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well regulated commonwealth. The number of inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it is furniſhed with a variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals.

* Coxe's Travels into Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. ii. p. 516—518.

† Chriſtian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1760 he was married to the princeſs Carolina Matilda of England; and has iſſue Frederic, prince royal of Denmark, born Jan. 28, 1768; Louiſa Auguſta, princeſs royal, born July 7th, 1771; and married to the prince of Sleſwick-Holſtein, May 27, 1786.

Ham-

Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with whom it ſtill carries on a great trade. The Hamburghers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hans Towns, and ſtill a rich and populous place, is alſo in this duchy, and governed by its own magiſtrates. It has 20 pariſh churches beſides a large cathedral. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the whole duchy.

LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require that I ſhould treat of it under a diſtinct head, and in the ſame method obſerved in other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME.] The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71 30 N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is the moſt valuable; and ſome parts in the eaſt, to the Muſcovites or Ruſſians. It is needleſs to point out the ſuppoſed dimenſions of each. That belonging to the Swedes may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts ſay, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Muſcovite part lies toward the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding the rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. The Swediſh Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the deſcendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the Introduction, may eaſily conceive that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and, during winter, it never riſes: but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight, and the aurora borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In the winter it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in ſome thermometers, ſpirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place, and then the froſt that ſucceeds preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein deer in a ſledge with inconceiveable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts, which daſh from the mountains, often preſent to the eye the moſt pictureſque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The reader muſt form in idea a maſs of mountains irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland: they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terreſtrial paradiſe: even roſes and other flowers

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grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; though this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome, unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of iron, copper, and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful cryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurpriſingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewiſe been ſometimes found in the rivers, but never in the ſeas.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature reſembling the martin, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is ſo much eſteemed, that it is frequently given as preſents to royal and diſtinguiſhed perſonages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. The moſt remarkable of the Lapland animals is the *rein deer*, which nature ſeems to have provided to ſolace the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All deſcribers of this animal have taken notice of the cracking noiſe that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their ſeparating and afterwards bringing together the diviſions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair in the ſame manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery briſtles, which is almoſt the only bird that can endure the rigour of the ſame climate. The hoof, however, is not only thus protected; the ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplanders to uſe ſnow ſhoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, as it prevents their ſinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body reſt only on a ſmall point. This quadruped hath therefore an inſtinct to uſe a hoof of ſuch a form in a ſtill more advantageous manner, by ſeparating it when the foot is to touch the ground ſo as to cover a larger ſurface of ſnow. The inſtant, however, the leg of the animal is raiſed, the hoof is immediatly contracted, and the colliſion of the parts occaſions the ſnapping which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may ſerve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon moſs: they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding it out, and when found, they ſcrape away the ſnow that covers it with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies, which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down, with the reins (which are faſtened to the horns of the animal) in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is generally ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver is at little trouble in directing him. At night they ſearch for their own provender; and their milk often helps to ſupport their maſter. Their inſtinct in chooſing their road, and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in woods. Their fleſh is a well taſted food, whether freſh or dried: their ſkin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and the body: their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about in the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But

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it is ſaid, that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally pitched upon. Their ſurpriſing ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of 200 * miles a day) ſeems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of thoſe carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination. But after all theſe abatements, the natives would have difficulty to ſubſiſt without the rein-deer, which ſerve them for ſo many purpoſes.

About autumn, when the lakes of Lapland begin to freeze, the water-fowl, which are found there in great abundance, migrate towards the ſouth; and upon the firſt opening of the ſpring, they return in large flocks to their prior habitations, where they find a plentiful ſubſiſtence from the grubs of the gnats. Theſe grubs too ſerve for the food of the *tetraones* or partridge tribe, thouſands whereof, and even myriads, are daily taken, and ſent to Stockholm. Theſe birds are caught in ſuch large quantities by the Laplanders, as to ſupply them with their ordinary proviſion in autumn, as the eggs of the water-fowl are their ſupport in ſpring †.

"Thoſe who have not ſeen it, will ſcarcely believe what numbers of water-fowl are to be met with; and my watermen would every now and then put into ſhore, to look for the eggs of wild ducks and geeſe amongſt the reeds, which grow here and there upon the river ſide, or in the little iſlands which in ſeveral places are formed in the middle of the river, and that after the manner of the Laplanders, who get vaſt quantities of theſe eggs, and of the wild fowl too, when in ſeaſon; for inſtance, the old ones in winter, and the goſlings and young ducks in ſummer, which they have ſeveral ways of killing; and their prey is in ſuch plenty that ſhould one of them go out a ſhooting for two hours, and not bring home a load of game, he would certainly conclude that ſome enchanter, who bore him a grudge, had, out of mere ſpite, ſpoiled his ſport ‡.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finniſh origin, and comprehends ſo many dialects, that it is with difficulty they underſtand each other. The greater part have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make uſe of in their Rounes, a ſort of ſticks that they call Piſtave, and which ſerve them for an almanack. Theſe hieroglyphics are alſo the marks they uſe inſtead of ſignatures, even in matters of law. Miſſionaries, from the chriſtianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the Chriſtian religion; but they can hardly be ſaid even yet to be Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the king of Denmark. The majority of the Laplanders practiſe as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries as are to be found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their ſuperſtitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and, according to

* Holberg ſays, the rein-deer, "if he is preſſed, will travel at the rate of ten or twelve Swediſh miles a day (70 or 84 Engliſh miles), but by ſuch hard driving he is generally deſtroyed. It, however, frequently happens, that he will perſevere in his journey 50 miles, without intermiſſion, and without taking any refreſhment." Linnæi Amœnit. Academ. Vol. I. p. 169.

† Holberg.

‡ Mortray's Travels, vol. ii. p. 301.

their progreſs, the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Theſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want. This is alſo a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great addreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods; but have among them great remains of the Druidical inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul; and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Juhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but, being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fiſhers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neigbourhood of ſome lake, from whence they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains, and their environs, poſſeſſing herds of rein-deer more or leſs numerous, which they uſe according to the ſeaſon, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich in compariſon of the Lapland fiſhers. Some poſſeſs ſix hundred or a thouſand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beſides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into claſſes; ſo that they inſtantly perceive whether any one is ſtrayed, though they cannot count to ſo great a number as that to which their ſtock often amounts. Thoſe who poſſeſs but a ſmall ſtock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland-fiſhers, who are alſo called Laplanders of the woods, becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſts, live by fiſhing and hunting, and chooſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. The greateſt part of them, however, have ſome rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chace: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow. Beſides looking after their rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chace, the men employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utenſils, which are ſometimes neatly carved, and ſometimes ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn. The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and in tanning hides: but it is underſtood to be the buſineſs of the men to look after the kitchen; in which, it is ſaid, the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above ſix feet in height. They cover them according to the ſeaſon, and the means of the poſſeſſor; ſome with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarſe cloth, or felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open aſunder. A little place ſurrounded with ſtones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. They are ſcarcely able to ſtand upright in their huts, but conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night, they lie down quite naked; and, to ſeparate the apartments, they place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter, they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houſehold-furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin, or even ſilver baſons: to theſe may be added the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry ſuch a number of

things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts, made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon a poſt, which is the trunk of a tree, cut off at about the height of a fathom or ſix foot from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and proviſions; and though they are never ſhut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer ſupply the Laplanders with the greateſt part of their proviſions; the chace and the fiſhery ſupply the reſt. Their principal diſhes are the fleſh of the rein-deer, and puddings made of their blood, by putting it either alone, or mixed with wild berries, into the ſtomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the fleſh of the bear is conſidered by them as moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh even the ſea-dog; as well as all ſorts of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt chiefly of fleſh and fiſh dried in the open air, which they eat raw. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed with milk: they make alſo broths and fiſh ſoups. Brandy is ſcarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a mat on the ground; and then men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhes. Every Laplander carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion ſeparately given him, that no perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a ſhort prayer: and, as ſoon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In the dreſs of the Laplanders they uſe no kind of linen. In the Flora Lapponica, Linnæus ſays, "Perhaps the curious reader will wonder how the people in Lapland, during the terrible cold that reigns there in winter, can preſerve their lives; ſince almoſt all birds, and even ſome wild beaſts, deſert it at that time. The Laplander, not only in the day, but through the whole winter nights, is obliged to wander about in the woods with his herds of rein-deer. For the rein-deer never come under cover, nor eat any kind of fodder, but a particular kind of *liverwort*. On this account the herdſmen are under a neceſſity of living continually in the woods, in order to take care of their cattle, leſt they ſhould be devoured by wild beaſts. No part of our body is more eaſily deſtroyed by cold than the extremities of the limbs, which are moſt remote from the ſun of this microcoſm, the heart. The kibes that happen to our hands and feet, ſo common in the northern parts of Sweden, prove this. In Lapland you will never ſee ſuch a thing; although, were we to judge by the ſituation of the country, we ſhould imagine juſt the contrary; eſpecially as the people wear no ſtockings, as we do, not only ſingle, but double and triple. The Laplander guards himſelf againſt the cold in the following manner. He wears breeches made of rein-deer ſkins with the hair on, reaching down to his heels, and ſhoes made of the ſame materials, the hairy part turned outwards. He puts into his ſhoes *ſlender-eared*, *broad-leaved*, *cyperus graſs*, *carex veſicaria*. *Spec. Pl.* (or the bladder carex) that is cut in ſummer and dried. This he firſt combs and rubs in his hands, and then places it in ſuch a manner, that it not only covers his feet quite round, but his legs alſo; and being thus guarded, he is quite ſecured againſt the intenſe cold. With this graſs they ſtuff their gloves likewiſe, in order to preſerve their hands. As this graſs keeps off the cold in winter, ſo in ſummer it hinders the feet from ſweating, and at the ſame time preſerves them from being annoyed by ſtriking againſt ſtones, &c. for their ſhoes are very thin, being made, not of tanned leather, but of the raw hide *."

Their doublet is made to fit their ſhape, and open at the breaſt. Over this they wear a cloſe coat with narrow ſleeves; the ſkirts reach to the knees, and is faſtened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or braſs. To this

* Stillingfleet's Tracts. p. 137, 138.

girdle they tie their knives, their inſtruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the reſt of their ſmoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, or leather, or of cloth; the cloſe coat is of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four ſeams adorned with liſts of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, ſhoes, doublets, and cloſe coats, in the ſame manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewiſe the implements for ſmoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with braſs wire. Their cloſe coat hath a collar, which comes up higher than that of the men. Beſides theſe, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they ſometimes hang chains of ſilver, which paſs two or three times round the neck. They are often dreſſed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear alſo caps fitted to the ſhape of the head; and, as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of braſs wire, or at leaſt with liſt of different colours.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are in general conſiderably ſhorter than more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman, who was ſuckling her child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half; they make, however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaiſant, chaſte, well-made, and extremely nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens, that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden ſight of an unexpected object, though it is in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming: in ſhort, at the moſt trifling things imaginable. During theſe paroxyſms of terror, they deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; and, on coming to themſelves, are utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, he, or his friends, court her father with brandy; when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable; which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed by her lover with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

COMMERCE.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes, made of rein-deer milk. They receive for theſe, rix-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco, and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rix-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war.

SWEDEN.

Extent and Situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	800	between	56 and 69 North latitude.
Breadth	500		10 and 30 East longitude.

Boundaries and divisions. THIS country is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate, or Scaggerac, on the South; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the Weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland, on the North; and by Muſcovy, on the Eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Theſe two laſt provinces belong now to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swediſh Lapland. And 7. The Swediſh iſlands. Great abatements muſt be made for the lakes and unimproved parts of Sweden, which are ſo extenſive that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom.

Sweden.	Square Miles. 76,835	Sum total. 228,715	Length.	Breadth.	Capital Cities.
Sweden Proper — —	47,900		342	194	Stockholm, N. Lat. 59—30. E. Long. 19—15.
Gothland — — —	25,975		253	160	Calmar.
Schonen — — —	2,960		77	56	Lunden.
Lapland and W. Bothnia —	76,000	76,835	420	340	Torne. Uma.
Swediſh Finland, and Eaſt Bothnia —	73,000		395	225	Abo. Cajenburg.
Gothland I. — —	1,000		80	23	Wiſby.
Oeland I. — —	560		84	9	Barkholm.
Upper Pomerania, P.	960	150,560	47	24	Stralſund.
Saxony Rugen I.	360	1,320	24	11	Bergen.

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Uplandia,	Helſingia,
Sudermania,	Dalecarlia,
Weſtmania,	Medelpedia,
Nericia,	Angermania,
Geſtricia,	Jemptia.

Of Gothland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Eaſt Gothland,	Dalia,
Weſt Gothland,	Schonen,
Smaland,	Bleking,
Wermeland,	Halland.

Of Swediſh Lapland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Thorne Lapmark,	Pithia Lapmark,
Kimi Lapmark,	Uma Lapmark.
Lula Lapmark,	

The principal places in Weſt Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Of Finland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Eaſt Bothnia,	Nyland,
Cajania,	Travaſtia,
Savoloxia,	Finland Proper.

The Swediſh iſles are Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

The face of Sweden is pretty ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS. The ſame may be ſaid with regard to this article. Summer burſts from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot, as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Chares XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting Colleges of Agrieulture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurpriſingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay, that they raiſe almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people know little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, and the like high-flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces cryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering-mills, and ſmelting houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that from the year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,398 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with great taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of the ſtate. Theſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and for ſome years the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,000l. ſterling. Dr. Buſching thinks that they conſtituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It muſt be obſerved, that the extortions of the Swediſh government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture in Sweden; ſo that the Swedes may be obliged to apply themſelves to other branches of trade and improvements, eſpecially in agriculture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. A few leagues from Gottenburg is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity, from the height into ſo deep a bed of water,

ter, that maſts, and other bodies of timber, precipitated down it, diſappear, ſome for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered: the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake, which ſinges things put into it, has been found in the ſouthern part of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſeveral ſtreaks of white, as if compoſed of gold and ſilver, affords ſulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. The Swedes have a manuſcript copy of a tranſlation of the Goſpels into Gothic, done by a biſhop 1300 years ago. In the arſenal at Stockholm is the ſkin of the horſe which Guſtaphus Adolphus rode at the battle of Lutzen, and the cloaths worn by Charles XII. when he was ſhot at Fredericſhall.

SEAS.] Their ſeas are the Baltic, and the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden are the Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtrait about four miles over which divides Sweden from Denmark.

Theſe ſeas have no tides, and are frozen up uſually four months in the year; nor are they ſo ſalt as the ocean, never mixing with it, becauſe a current ſets always out of the Baltic ſea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] Theſe differ little from thoſe already deſcribed in Norway and Denmark; only the Swediſh horſes are more ſerviceable in war than the German. The Swediſh hawks, when carried to France, have been known to reviſit their native country; as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inſcription on a ſmall gold plate, ſignifying that he belonged to the French king. The fiſhes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden are the ſame with thoſe in other northern countries, and taken in ſuch quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are ſalted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the ſeals taken in the gulf of Finland, is a conſiderable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] There is a great diverſity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable, they are known to have had different characters in different ages. At preſent, their peaſants ſeem to be a heavy plodding race of men, ſtrong and hardy; but without any other ambition than that of ſubſiſting themſelves and their families: the mercantile claſſes are much of the ſame caſt; but great application and perſeverance is diſcovered among them all. One could form no idea that the modern Swedes are the deſcendants of thoſe, who, under Guſtavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names through diſtant countries, and ſhook the foundations of the greateſt empires. The intrigues of their ſenators dragged them to take part in the late war againſt Pruſſia; yet their behaviour was ſpiritleſs. The nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite and hoſpitable; they have high notions of honour, and are jealous of their national intereſts. The dreſs, exerciſes, and diverſions of the common people, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark: the better ſort are infatuated with French modes and faſhions. They are not fond of marrying their daughters when young, as they have little to ſpare in their own lifetime. The women go to plough, threſh out the corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in huſbandry.

RELIGION.] Chriſtianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated among them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are ſurpriſingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and have ſuch an averſion to popery, that caſtration is the fate of every Roman catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal has a revenue of about 400l. a year; and has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuperintendants, with moderate ſtipends. No clergyman has the leaſt direction in affairs of ſtate; but their morals, and the ſanctity of their lives, endear them ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their

churches

churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons direct their religious œconomy. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature is well known to the public, and ſhe may be accounted to have been a genius in many branches of knowledge. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have lately exhibited ſome ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſſelquiſt, into the eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expence for that country, all Haſſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo was the late celebrated Linnæus, whoſe memory will be ever dear to all the lovers of ſcience, but particularly the ſcience of botany.

The name of Linnæus may be claſſed amongſt thoſe of Newton, Boyle, Locke, Haller, Euler, and other great philoſophers, who were friends to religion: he always teſtified in his converſations, writings, and actions, the higheſt reverence for the Supreme Being; and was ſo ſtrongly impreſſed with the idea of omnipreſence, that he wrote over the door of his ſtudy: *Innocui vivite, numen adeſt.*

The great merits of Linnæus as a naturaliſt are to be eſtimated from the rude ſtate in which he found all the branches of natural hiſtory, and the perfection to which he carried them; in drawing order from confuſion, and perſpicuity from darkneſs: his underſtanding comprehenſive, yet accurate, was capable of combining and arranging an almoſt infinite variety of objects, which the magnitude of the greateſt could not fatigue, nor the inſignificance of the ſmalleſt elude. The mere catalogue of his works would make an ordinary pamphlet; and it would require no ſmall volume to trace even the outlines of his ſyſtem, now diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of Linnæan, which new methodized and reformed the whole compaſs of natural hiſtory. In theſe extenſive and various purſuits, we know not which to admire moſt, his intimate knowledge, his fertility of invention, his indefatigable induſtry, his ſcientific arrangement, or that wonderful exactneſs in diſcriminating, where the minuteſt ſhades of difference are ſcarcely perceptible *.

Even in the midſt of the late diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a conſiderable height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by ſeveral ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. The ſtudents in this univerſity are numerous; but do not inhabit, as in our univerſities, any diſtinct college or col-

* The reader, who is deſirous of further intelligence concerning this great naturaliſt, will find his curioſity amply gratified from the peruſal of Dr. Pulteney's "General View of the Writings of Linnæus." In that excellent publication the ingenious author has detailed a liſt of his numerous works, methodically claſſed according to the æra of their appearance, to which is ſubjoined a critical account of their contents. He has alſo traced the progreſs, and laid open the leading principles of the Linnæan ſyſtem, with a maſterly preciſion and accuracy, which could only be derived from the moſt perfect knowledge of the ſubject. See alſo Coxe's Travels, 4to. vol. ii. p. 428—448.

leges,

leges, there being no buildings for their accommodation, but lodge in the town; and repair to the general or public lectures, given by the ſeveral profeſſors, either at their own houſes, or at the public halls appropriated to ſuch purpoſes. The poorer ſtudents are aſſiſted in their expences, by being appointed to ſcholarſhips, the higheſt of which amount to about 13l. per annum. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are thoſe of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and agriculture. Their ſalaries are from 70l. to 100l. per annum. This univerſity, juſtly called by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled ſchool of natural hiſtory," is certainly the firſt ſeminary of the North for academical education; and has produced, from the time of its inſtitution, perſons eminent in every branch of ſcience. The learned publications, which have lately been given to the world by its members, ſufficiently prove the flouriſhing ſtate of literature in theſe parts; and the theſes, compoſed by the ſtudents upon their admiſſion to their degrees, would form a very intereſting collection. Many of theſe tracts upon various ſubjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evidence the erudition and taſte of the reſpective authors: among the works of this ſort, which have widely diffuſed the fame of this learned ſociety throughout Europe, are the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, or a Collection of Theſes upon Natural Hiſtory, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly ſelected by that able maſter. There is another univerſity at Abo, in Finland, but not ſo well endowed, nor ſo flouriſhing, and a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free-ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity †.

MANUFACTUES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. The Swediſh commonalty ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic are bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, potaſh, wooden utenſils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fiſh. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late as the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their crude ore to the Hanſe towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utenſils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactures of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollen, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Bookſelling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linen, alum, and brimſtone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills; vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have alſo founderies for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and flatting-mills; mills alſo for fulling, and for boring and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called Staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine diſtricts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports, moſt part of which arrive, or are ſent off in Swediſh ſhips: the Swedes having a navigation-act, like that of the Engliſh. Theſe promiſing appearances were, however, blaſted by the jealouſies of the Swediſh government.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom; it ſtands about 760 miles north-eaſt from London, upon ſeven ſmall rocky iſlands, beſides two penin-

† An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and is now in a flouriſhing condition. They have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

ſulas, and built upon piles. It ſtrikes a ſtranger with its ſingular and romantic ſcenery. A variety of contraſted and enchanting views are formed by numberleſs rocks of granite riſing boldly from the ſurface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houſes, or feathered with wood. The harbour, which is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, is an inlet of the Baltic: the water is clear as chryſtal, and of ſuch depth, that ſhips of the largeſt burthen can approach the quay, which is of conſiderable breadth, and lined with ſpacious buildings and warehouſes. At the extremity of the harbour, ſeveral ſtreets riſe one above another in the form of an amphitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the ſummit. Towards the ſea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a narrow ſtrait, and, winding among high rocks, diſappears from the ſight; and the proſpect is terminated by diſtant hills, overſpread with foreſt. It is far beyond the power of words, or of the pencil, to delineate theſe ſingular views. The central iſland, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handſomeſt parts of the town.

Excepting in the ſuburbs, where the houſes are of wood painted red, the generality of the buildings are of ſtone, or brick ſtuccoed white. The royal palace, which ſtands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon the higheſt ſpot of ground, was begun by Charles XI. it is a large quadrangular ſtone edifice, and the ſtyle of architecture is both elegant and magnificent ‡. The number of houſekeepers, who pay taxes, are 60,000. This city is furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce (particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666l. 13s. 4d. ſterling), that are common to other great European cities.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the courſe of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter Ulrica; who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates to their former liberties; and they, in return, aſſociated her huſband, the landgrave of Heſſe-Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil, or military, were conferred by the king only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates were formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers, and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility, which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 200, and the peaſants to 200. Each order ſat in its own houſe, and had its own ſpeaker, and each choſe a ſecret committee, for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of January; and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain, becauſe the king's prerogative was more bounded.

When the ſtates were not ſitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the ſenate, which were no other than a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper houſe, appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe choſe three perſons, who were to be preſented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants had no vote in electing a ſenate. Almoſt all the executive power was lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſted of 14 members, beſides the chief go-

‡ Coxe, vol. ii. p. 327, 328.

vernors

vernors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, formed the king's privy council; but he had no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator was accountable for his conduct to the ſtates. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican, for the king's power was not ſo great as that of a Dutch ſtadtholder. The ſenate had even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes had introduced into the adminiſtration of civil, military, commercial, and other departments. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they muſt paſs.

But in Auguſt, 1772, the whole ſyſtem of the Swediſh government was totally changed by the preſent king, in the moſt unexpected manner. Some of the circumſtances which attended this revolution, will be found at the cloſe of our review of the hiſtory of Sweden. By that event, the Swedes, inſtead of having the defects of their conſtitution rectified, found their king inveſted with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the moſt deſpotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king is to aſſemble and ſeparate the ſtates whenever he pleaſes; he is to have the ſole diſpoſal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and though the king does not openly claim a power of impoſing taxes on all occaſions, yet ſuch as already ſubſiſt are to be perpetual; and in caſe of invaſion, or preſſing neceſſity, the king may impoſe ſome taxes till the ſtates can be aſſembled. But of this neceſſity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the ſtates depends upon his pleaſure: and when they are aſſembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is eaſy to diſcern, that a government thus conſtituted, can be little removed from one of the moſt deſpotic kind. However, the Swediſh nation is ſtill amuſed with ſome ſlight appearances of a legal and limited government; for in the new ſyſtem, which conſiſts of fifty-ſeven articles, a ſenate is appointed, conſiſting of ſeventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown, and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the ſtate, whenever the king ſhall demand it. In that caſe, if the queſtions agitated are of great importance, and the unanimous advice of the ſenators ſhould be contrary to the opinion of the king, the king, it is ſaid, ſhall follow their advice. But this, it may be obſerved, is a circumſtance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a ſenate, conſiſting chiefly of officers of the crown, ſhould give their opinions againſt the king; and in every other caſe the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are ſome other apparent reſtraints of the regal power in the new ſyſtem of government, but they are in reality very inconſiderable. It is ſaid that the king cannot eſtabliſh any new law, nor aboliſh any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates: but the king of Sweden, according to the preſent conſtitution, is inveſted with ſo much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any perſon will venture to make an oppoſition to whatever he ſhall propoſe.

Punishments.] The common method of execution in Sweden is beheading and hanging; for murder, the hand of the criminal is firſt chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered: women, after beheading, inſtead of being quartered, are burned. No capital puniſhment is inflicted without the ſentence being

confirmed by the king. Every priſoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjuſt condemnation, and in ſuch a caſe demands a reviſal of the ſentence; or elſe prays for pardon, or a mitigation of puniſhment. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, houſebreaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in ſome countries are conſidered as capital, are chiefly puniſhed by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, impriſonment and hard labour, either for life, or for a ſtated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confeſſion till the reign of the preſent king; but, in 1773, his Swediſh majeſty aboliſhed this cruel and abſurd practice.

POTITICAL INTERESTS OF SWEDEN.] In the reign of Guſtavus Vaſa, a treaty of alliance took place between Sweden and France; and Sweden entered into a ſubſidiary treaty with that crown, in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. In conſequence of theſe treaties, France by degrees acquired an aſcendancy in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the intereſts of the kingdom. During the reign of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was ſacrificed to the intereſt of France; and during the laſt war with the king of Pruſſia, for the ſake of a ſmall ſubſidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000l. which has ſince been conſiderably augmented: ſo that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their wiſeſt men perceived the miſchievous tendency of their connection with France, and endeavoured to put an end to it. But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in conſequence of their ſubſidies and intrigues, has occaſioned conſiderable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a moſt powerful party appeared in the diet in favour of French meaſures. The perſons who compoſed it went under the denomination of *Hats*. The object they held out to the nation was, the recovery of ſome of the dominions yielded to Ruſſia; and conſequently the ſyſtem they were to proceed upon, was to break with that power, and connect themſelves with France. The party directly oppoſed to them was headed by count Horn, and thoſe who had contributed to eſtabliſh the new form of government, which was ſettled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion of the domeſtic welfare of the nation. The ſyſtem, therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a cloſe correſpondence with Ruſſia, and to avoid all farther connection with France. Theſe were ſtyled the *Caps*. There was beſides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, compoſed of perſons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themſelves. Theſe parties long continued, but the French party generally prevailed. Some efforts were employed by the Engliſh court to leſſen or deſtroy the French influence in Sweden, and for ſome time they were ſucceſsful: but the Hat party again acquired the aſcendancy. Theſe parties are now aboliſhed, in conſequence of the preſent king of Sweden having made ſuch a total change in the conſtitution of government. And as, whatever reaſon his ſubjects may have to complain on account of the power he has aſſumed, he is certainly a prince of penetration and abilities, it is probable, that when his own intereſts and thoſe of his ſubjects do not interfere, he will attend to the advantage of the nation. His ſagacity, there is reaſon to conclude, will lead him to promote the external political intereſts of Sweden; and he may, perhaps, be contented, to obſerve a ſtrict neutrality with regard both to Denmark and Ruſſia.

REVENUE AND COIN.] The revenue of Sweden, ſince the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Ruſſians ſince, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verden, and other places that kingdom was ſtripped off, contained about 78,000 ſquare miles. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie, in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly the crown-lands, poll-money,

tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced a million ſterling. The payments, that are made in copper, which was till lately the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient, ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d. but theſe are ſcarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have little ſpecie in circulation; large pieces of copper ſtamped, and ſmall bank notes being almoſt their only circulating money.

STRENGTH AND FORCES.] No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is cloathed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates; and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum is charged with a foot-ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or elſe a little wooden houſe is built for him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſubject to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be ſaid, that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men, and Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ſhips of the line; but of late years their ſhips, together with their docks, have been ſuffered greatly to run to decay.

ROYAL STYLE.] The king's ſtyle is king of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomerania, &c.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] Theſe are, the order of the *North Star*, conſiſting of 24 members; the order of *Vaſa*; and the order of the *Sword*; the laſt created in 1772.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. I ſhall not here follow the romances of Swediſh hiſtorians through the early ages, from Magog, the great grand-ſon of Noah. It is ſufficient to ſay, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy as any we know of. The hiſtory of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, is confuſed, unintereſting, and often doubtful; but replete with murders, maſſacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it aſſumes an appearance more regular. At this time the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained, or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture in a very rude and imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified rank, from the great reſpect paid to their characters among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an influence in all public affairs, and obtained poſſeſſions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate, formed a council called the Senate, which was maſter of all public deliberations. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſentions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign; they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indolent pomp of a few biſhops; and, what was more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs expoſed them to the inroads and oppreſſion of a

foreign enemy. The Danes, by their neighbourhood and power, were able to avail themſelves of the diſſenſions in Sweden, and to ſubject, under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſituation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under the nominal ſubjection of its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Magnus Ladeſlaus, crowned in 1276, was the firſt king of Sweden who purſued a regular ſyſtem to increaſe his authority; and to ſucceed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ableſt princes who ever ſat on the Swediſh throne; by his addreſs he prevailed upon the convention of eſtates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the ſupport of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was followed by a proportional increaſe of the regal power; and, by the ſteady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty ſpirit of his nobles, and created in the reſt of the nation a reſpect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted; he, at the ſame time, by employing his authority in many reſpects for the public good, reconciled his ſubjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have oppoſed with the utmoſt violence. The ſucceſſors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and ſeveral revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great diſorder and confuſion, and the government was for a long time in an unſettled ſtate.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to this laſt in 1394. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the North, by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Several revolutions enſued after the death of Margaret; and at length Chriſtian II. the laſt king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was alſo king of Sweden, engaged in a ſcheme to render himſelf entirely abſolute. The policy by which he attempted to effect this deſign, proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. To eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacreing the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1520. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtian, no one remained in Sweden but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince, deſcended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had ſignalized his arms againſt the king of Denmark. A price was laid on his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped, under the diſguiſe of a peaſant, to the mountains of Dalecarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how to prevent his diſcovery he wrought in the braſs-mines, how he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence, and in fine, ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe, and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and was attached to his perſon. He was created therefore firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the univerſal conſent of the whole nation. His circumſtances were much more favourable than thoſe of any former prince who had poſſeſſed this dignity.

The maſſacre of the nobles had rid him of thoſe proud and haughty enemies, who had long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, were no leſs powerful and dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of that country; and the exerciſe of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the ſevereſt penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all governments, and, when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the moſt wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were ſoon viſible: arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation and commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have weight in all public treaties or deliberations. Guſtavus died in 1559.

Under Eric, who ſucceeded his father Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 1566. His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made ſtrong efforts for that purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by his brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. John's ſon, Sigiſmund, was choſen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to reſtore the Roman catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles, brother to king John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; and being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew Sigiſmund endeavoured to drive him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt he and his family were excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigiſmund, who was a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, in 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtates, though then only in his eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf, through the intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages; all which he ſurmounted. He narrowly miſſed being maſter of Ruſſia; but the Ruſſians were ſo tenacious of their independency, that his ſcheme was baffled. In 1617 he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a ſum of money beſides.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen much military ſervice, and was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His troops had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe: and he carried his ambition farther than hiſtorians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were early jealous of his enterprizing ſpirit, and ſupported his ancient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom Guſtavus defeated. In 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzick, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that he was placed at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes: after taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and

and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburgh, defeated the famous count Tilly, who was till then thought invincible, and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Walenſtein, another Auſtrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to command againſt Guſtavus. The king was killed upon the plain of Lutzen, 1632, after gaining a battle; which had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals, trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, with their prodigious actions in war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that he had in his eye ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenſteirn was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that ſhe in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, 1648, which brought the affairs of Europe into a new ſyſtem.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a good education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men; to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts: but illiberal and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. He died of a fever in 1660. His ſon Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a ſubſidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland againſt him. He afterwards joined with France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being defeated in Germany at Felem-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburg made himſelf maſter of the Swediſh Pomerania: the biſhop of Munſter over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles by the treaty of St. Germains, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had loſt, except ſome places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's ſiſter: but made a very bad uſe of the tranquility he had regained; for he enſlaved his people, that he might render himſelf deſpotic, and his army formidable. The ſtates loſt all their power, and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtrance in favour of his countrymen, but

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he ſaved himſelf by flight; and Charles became ſo powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Piper, who became his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He oppoſed them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head of 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike atchievements equalled thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus, king of Poland; but ſtained all his laurels, by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland in 1705, and he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and, among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His implacable diſpoſition, however, was ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks afterwards found it convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. After his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon ſhot, at the ſiege of Fredericſhall, in Norway, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed, that Charles was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Fredericſhall, but that a piſtol *, from one of thoſe about him, gave the deciſive blow, which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is very prevalent in Sweden. And it appears, that the Swedes were tired of a prince, under whom they had loſt their richeſt provinces, their braveſt troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adverſity, purſued an unſucceſsful war, nor would ever have liſtened to the voice of peace, or conſulted the internal tranquillity of his country.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleonora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties, and given ſome account of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband, when they entered upon the exerciſe of government. Their firſt care was to make a peace with Great Britain. The Swedes, to prevent farther loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the *Hats*, which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was ne-

* The reader, who is deſirous of ſeeing the arguments on both ſides of this queſtion, which could not with propriety be given in detail in this conciſe narrative, will be highly gratified by conſulting Coxe's Travels into Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. ii. p. 351—363.

ceſſary

ceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was, at the ſame time, the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Heſſe-Caſſel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubec, as their hereditary prince, and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty. This peace was ſo firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Daniſh majeſty thought proper to drop all the effects of his reſentment, and to forget the indignity done to his ſon. The prince's ſucceſſor, Adolphus Frederic, married the princeſs Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia; and entered into the poſſeſſion of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, much haraſſed by the contending Swediſh factions, and found his ſituation extremely troubleſome, in conſequence of the reſtraints and oppoſition which he met with from the ſenate. He paſſed the greateſt part of his reign very diſagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Guſtavus the Third, the preſent reigning prince, who poſſeſſes abilities greatly ſuperior to thoſe of his father.

He was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden; his underſtanding had been much cultivated, he hath an inſinuating addreſs, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, from whence he wrote in the moſt gracious terms to the ſenate, repeatedly aſſuring them that he deſigned to govern according to the laws. In conſequence of the death of the late king, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to ſettle the form of the coronation-oath for the preſent king. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1773, his majeſty ſolemnly ſigned and ſwore to obſerve twenty-four articles, relative to his future adminiſtration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promiſes before God to ſupport the government of the kingdom as then eſtabliſhed; to maintain the rights and liberties of the ſtates, the liberties and ſecurity of all his ſubjects, and to reign with gentleneſs and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was eſtabliſhed in the year 1720, and conformable to the preſent act of capitulation. In conſequence of the declaration of the ſtates, the king ſhall regard any perſon, who ſhall openly or clandeſtinely endeavour to introduce abſolute ſovereignty, as an enemy of the kingdom, and as a traitor to his country, and every perſon muſt take an oath reſpecting this matter before he can take poſſeſſion of any employment. With regard to the affairs of the cabinet and the ſenate, the king promiſes to follow the regulations of the year 1720 upon that head, which were to be directed always by a majority of votes, and never to do any thing therein without, and much leſs againſt, their advice. To the end that the council of ſtate may be ſo much the more convinced of the inviolable deſigns of his majeſty, and of his ſincere love for the good of his people, he declares them to be entirely diſengaged from their oath of fidelity, in caſe that he wilfully acts contrary to his coronation-oath, and to this capitulation. And laſtly, the king threatens any perſon with his higheſt diſpleaſure, who ſhall be ſo inconſiderate as to propoſe to him a greater degree of power and ſplendor than is marked out in this act of capitulation, as his majeſty deſires only to gain the affection of his faithful ſubjects, and to be their powerful defender againſt any attempts which may be made upon their lawful liberties."

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But ſcarcely had the king taken theſe ſolemn oaths to rule according to the eſtabliſhed form of government, and accepted the crown upon theſe conditions, before he formed the plan to govern as he thought proper, regarding theſe only as matters of ceremony. On his firſt arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which the moſt profound diſſimulation and the utmoſt dexterity could ſuggeſt, to increaſe his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who preſented themſelves. Neither rank, fortune, nor intereſt, were neceſſary to obtain acceſs to him: it was ſufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cauſe of complaint to lay before him. He liſtened to the meaneſt of his ſubjects with affability, and entered into the minuteſt details that concerned them; he informed himſelf of their private affairs, and ſeemed to intereſt himſelf in their happineſs. This conduct made him conſidered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the warmth of their gratitude they forgot that motives of ambition might have ſome ſhare in forming a conduct which to them appeared to proceed from principles of the pureſt benevolence. At the ſame time that he laboured to render himſelf generally popular, he alſo endeavoured to perſuade the leading men of the kingdom, that he was ſincerely and inviolably attached to the conſtitution of his country, that he was perfectly ſatisfied with the ſhare of power the conſtitution had allotted to him, and he took every opportunity to declare, that he conſidered it as his greateſt glory to be the firſt citizen of a free people. He ſeemed intent on baniſhing corruption, and promoting union; he declared he would be of no party but that of the nation, and that he would ever pay the moſt implicit obedience to whatever the diet ſhould enact. Theſe profeſſions lulled the many into a fatal ſecurity, though they created ſuſpicions among a few of greater penetration, who thought his majeſty promiſed too much to be in earneſt. In the mean time there happened ſome contentions between the different orders of the Swediſh ſtates, and no methods were left untried to foment theſe jealouſies. Emiſſaries were likewiſe planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpoſe of ſowing diſcontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them diſaffected to the eſtabliſhed government, and of exciting them to an inſurrection. At length, when the king found his ſcheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper meaſures for bringing a conſiderable number of the officers and ſoldiers * into his intereſt, on the 19th of Auguſt, 1772, he totally overturned the Swediſh conſtitution of government. In leſs than an hour he made himſelf maſter of all the military force of Stockholm. He planted grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, at the door of the council-chamber, in which the ſenate were aſſembled, and made all the members of it priſoners. And that no news might be carried to any other part of Sweden, of the tranſaction in which the king was engaged, till the ſcheme was completed, cannon were drawn from the arſenal, and planted at the palace, the bridges, and other parts of the town, and particularly at all the avenues leading to it. Soldiers ſtood over theſe with matches ready lighted; all communication with the country was cut off, no one without a paſſport from the king being allowed to leave the city. The ſenators were then confined in ſeparate apartments in the palace, and many others, who were ſuppoſed to be zealouſly attached to the liberties of Sweden, were put under arreſt. The remainder of the day the king employed in viſiting different quarters of the town, in order to receive oaths of fidelity to him from the magiſtrates, the colleges, and city militia. Oaths were alſo tendered

* The fidelity which was manifeſted by a private ſoldier, on this occaſion, deſerves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king being deſirous of viſiting the arſenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refuſed. "Do you know who you are ſpeaking to?" ſaid the king, "Yes:" replied the ſoldier, "but I likewiſe know my duty."—*Vid.* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, publiſhed by Charles Francis Sheridan, eſq. who was ſecretary to the Britiſh envoy in Sweden at the time of the revolution.

the next day to the people in general, to whom he addreſſed a ſpeech, which he concluded by declaring, that his only intention was to reſtore tranquillity to his native country, by ſuppreſſing licentiouſneſs, overturning the ariſtocratic form of government, reviving the old Swediſh liberty, and reſtoring the ancient laws of Sweden, ſuch as they were before 1680. "I renounce now," ſaid he, "as I have already done, all idea of the abhorred abſolute power, or what is called *ſovereignty*, eſteeming it now, as before, my greateſt glory to be the firſt citizen among a truly free people." Heralds then went through the different quarters of the town, to proclaim an aſſembly of the ſtates for the following day. This proclamation contained a threat, that if any member of the diet ſhould abſent himſelf, he ſhould be conſidered and treated as a traitor to his country.

On the morning of the 21ſt of Auguſt, a large detachment of guards was ordered to take poſſeſſion of the ſquare, where the houſe of nobles ſtands. The palace was inveſted on all ſides with troops, and cannon were planted in the court, facing the hall where the ſtates were to be aſſembled. Theſe were not only charged, but ſoldiers ſtood over them with matches ready lighted in their hands. The ſeveral orders of the ſtates were here compelled to aſſemble by the king's order, and theſe military preparations were made in order to aſſiſt their deliberations. The king being ſeated on his throne, ſurrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addreſſed a ſpeech to the ſtates, he ordered a ſecretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the ſtates for their acceptance. As they were ſurrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marſhal of the diet, and the ſpeakers of the other orders, ſigned the form of government; and the ſtates took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himſelf. This extraordinary tranſaction was concluded in a manner equally extraordinary. The king drew a book of Pſalms from his pocket, and taking off his crown, began to ſing *Te Deum*, in which he was joined by the aſſembly. He afterwards gave them to underſtand, that he intended in ſix years time again to convene an aſſembly of the ſtates. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodſhed, in which the Swedes ſurrendered that conſtitution, which their forefathers had bequeathed to them, after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark againſt any deſpotic attempts of their future monarchs.

The Swedes, at ſome periods, have diſcovered an ardent love of liberty: at others, they have ſeemed fitted only for ſlavery; and when they were labouring to render themſelves free, they have wanted that ſound political knowledge, which would have pointed out to them the proper methods for ſecuring their future freedom. The moſt capital defect of the Swediſh conſtitution was the total want of all balance of its parts: and the diviſion of the Swediſh nation into three diſtinct claſſes of nobles, burghers, and peaſants, whoſe intereſts were perpetually claſhing, has been a circumſtance very unfavourable to the liberty of the Swedes. The power of their kings was much reſtrained; but no ſufficient regulations were adopted for ſecuring the perſonal freedom of the ſubject. Theſe defects in the Swediſh conſtitution paved the way for the late revolution: but it is notwithſtanding a juſt ſubject of ſurpriſe, that a bold and hardy people, who had ſo cautiouſly limited the power of their prince, ſhould at once, without a ſtruggle, ſuffer him to proceed to ſo great an extenſion of his authority. It appears, however, that the exorbitant power which Guſtavus the Third hath thus aſſumed, he has, ſince the revolution, exerciſed with moderation; and, at an aſſembly of the ſtates, in 1786, after many points were referred to them by the king, and debated with great freedom, he diſmiſſed them, with condeſcenſion and gentleneſs, at the ſame time remitting the tenth part of the ſubſidy which they had granted him.

On

On the 12th of July, 1788, hoſtilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland, between a body of Ruſſian light troops and a detachment of the Swedes poſted on the bridge of Pomalaſund. After various engagements both by land and ſea, in which Guſtavus III. gave a diſplay of the moſt extraordinary abilities, an agreement for eſtabliſhing an everlaſting peace, and fixing the frontiers of Ruſſia, as they were before the war broke out, was ſigned at Werela on the river Kymene, between the plenipotentiaries of the empreſs of Ruſſia and the king of Sweden.

Guſtavus, of Holſtein-Gottorp, king of Sweden, was born in 1746, and ſucceeded his father in 1771. He was married, in 1766, to Sophia Magdalena, the princeſs royal of Denmark, by whom he has iſſue a prince, Guſtavus Adolphus, born Nov. 1. 1778. His brothers and ſiſter are, 1. Charles, born in 1748; 2. Frederic Adolphus, born in 1750; 3. Sophia Albertina, born in 1753.

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1500	between	23 and 65 East longitude.
Breadth	1100		47 and 72 North latitude.

DIVISIONS AND NAME. ACCORDING to the moſt authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it conſiſts of 42 provinces, or governments, which are comprehended again under 19 general governments*. Carelia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherſoneſus, a peninſula in the Euxine ſea, was ſubject to the Turks formerly, but added, in the year 1783, to the Ruſſian empire, with the iſle of Taman, and part of Cuban; alſo the duchy of Courland, and a great part of Lithuania, in Poland.

The following table will give ſome idea of the Ruſſian empire, properly ſo called, or Ruſſia in Europe, with its acquiſitions from Sweden in the preſent century; and alſo of the Ruſſian empire in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, for we muſt alſo include all the acquiſitions in Tartary now known by the name of Siberia: the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Aſia, ſtretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the Weſt, to Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern Ocean; and on the North, from the Frozen Ocean to the forty-ſeventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caſpian Seas, Great Tartary, Chineſe Tartary, and ſome unknown regions in Aſia.

The country now comprized under the name of Ruſſia, or the Ruſſias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the reſt of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius ſubdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be ſeen by turning to the table, * page 26, to which we may add the authority of Voltaire.

* Zimmermann, p. 25.

	Ruſſian Empire in Europe.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Greek Church	Ruſ. or Muſc.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow.
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Waronetz.
	Don Coſſacs,	57,000	400	280	Panchina.
	Uk. Coſſacs,	45,000	330	205	Kiow.
	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola.
Conquered from Sweden ſince 1700.	Ruſ. Finland,	41,320	320	180	Wyburg.
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga.
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	PETERSBURGH { N. Lat. 60. E.Long.30-25.
		1,103,495			
Seized from the Turks in 1783.	Crim. Tartary.	8,200	160	115	Kaffa.
	Ruſſian Empire in Aſia.				
Chriſtians and Idolaters.	Muſcovy, Tartary, and Siberia,	2,200,000	3150	1500	Tobolſky.
	Kalm. Tartary.	850,000	2100	750	Aſtrachan.
By the partition treaty between the Emperor, Pruſſia and Ruſſia.	Lithuania in Poland - -	64,000	300	250	Grodno
	Total -	4,151,495			

Ruſſia has alſo been ſubdivided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.
1. Lapland,
2. Samoida,
3. Bellamorenſkey,
4. Meſeen,
5. Dwina,
6. Syrianes,
7. Permia,
8. Rubeninſky,
9. Blaeſeda.

Middle Provinces.
10. Rezan, or Pereſlaf,
11. Belozero,
12. Wologda,
13. Jeraſlaf,
14. Tweer,
15. Moſcow,
16. Belgorod.

Eaſtern Provinces.
17. Bulgar,
18. Kaſan,
19. Tſcheremiſſi,
20. Little Novogrod,
21. Don Coſſacs.

Weſtern Provinces.
22. Great Novogrod,
23. Ruſſian Finland,
24. Kexholm,
25. Kaleria,
26. Ingria.

Southern Provinces.
27. Livonia,
28. Smolenſko,
29. Zernigof,
30. Seefſk,
31. Ukraine, or country of the Old Coſſacs.

Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Peterſburgh, has enumerated the following nations as comprehended in this great empire:

The Mongouls,
The Kalmucs,
The Tartars,
The Samoides,
The Oſtiachs,
The Burattians,
The Jakuttians,
The Tunguſians,
The Voguls,
The Laplanders,
The Finns,
The Lettonians,
The Eſtonians,
The Lieffs,
The Ingrians,
The Tſcheremiſſes,
The Tſchouwaſches,
The Mordvines,

The

The Votiaks,
The Terptyaireis,
The Tartars of Kaſan and Orenburgh,
The Tartars of Tobolſk,
The Tartars of Tomſk.
The Nogayan Tartars,
The Tartars of the Ob,
The Tſchoulym Tartars,
The Katſchintz Tartars,
The Teleutes,
The Abinzes,
The Biryouſſes,
The Coſſacs,
The Kurilians,
The Kiſtim and Toulibert Tartars,
The Vergho Tomſkoi Tartars,
The Sayan Tartars,
The Touralinzes,
The Bougharians,
The Baſchkirians,
The Meſtſcheraiks,
The Barabinzes,
The Kirkguiſians,
The Beltirians,
The Yakoutes,
The Kamtſchadales,

and various others; but ſome of which muſt be conſidered rather as diſtinct tribes than as diſtinct nations.

As to the names of Ruſſia and Muſcovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, and the river Moſca, upon which the ancient capital Moſcow was built.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas in the moſt northern the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muſcovy a great diverſity of ſoil as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be ſeen and felt in this vaſt empire.

The ſeverity of the climate in Ruſſia, properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves that the cold in St. Peterſburgh, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of December, January, and February, uſually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point: though commonly, in the courſe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days ſome degrees lower. "It is difficult," ſays Dr. King, "for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold ſo intenſe: when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing hangs in little icicles on the eye-laſhes. As the peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice; but, even in that ſtate, the beard is found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the ſoldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply their place. All the parts of the face which are expoſed are liable to be frozen: though it has often been obſerved, that the perſon himſelf does not know when the freezing begins; but is commonly told of it by thoſe who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual way to thaw it. It is alſo remarked, that the part, which has once been frozen, is ever after moſt liable to be frozen again. In ſome very ſevere winters, ſparrows, though a hardy ſpecies of birds, have been ſeen quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly: and drivers, when ſitting on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water, thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of ſtrong ale has alſo been found frozen in an hour and an half: but in this ſubſtance there was about a tea-cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as ſtrong and inflammable as brandy or ſpirits of wine. But notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants have ſuch various means to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer much leſs than might be expected. The houſes of perſons in tolerable circumſtances are ſo well protected, both without doors and within, that they are ſeldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houſes in Ruſſia is by an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues, and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. Theſe ovens conſume a much ſmaller quantity of wood than might

be imagined, and yet they ſerve at the ſame time for the ordinary people to dreſs their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and ſuffer it to burn only till the thickeſt black ſmoke is evaporated; they then ſhut down the chimney to retain all the reſt of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly ſo warm that they ſit with very little covering, eſpecially children, who are uſually in their ſhirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible: in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter, and commonly have double glaſs frames. They can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactneſs, opening or ſhutting the flues to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. When the Ruſſians go out, they are clothed ſo warmly, that they almoſt bid deſiance to froſt and ſnow; and it is obſervable, that the wind is ſeldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing."

One advantage, which the Ruſſians derive from the ſeverity of their climate, is, the preſerving proviſions by the froſt. Good houſewives, as ſoon as the froſt ſets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires: by this means they ſave the nouriſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterſburgh, 830 miles, is eſteemed the fineſt they have; nor can it be diſtinguiſhed at the table from what is freſh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterſburgh are thus ſupplied in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Ruſſia is by immerging them in cold water: for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Ruſſia is pretty much the ſame as in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are miſerably fed; the ſoil produces incredible numbers of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were little acquainted with agriculture: and ſupplied the place of bread, as ſome inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors, down to the preſent empreſs, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its fertility in ſome provinces bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The eaſy communication, by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerve to ſupply one province with thoſe products in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia, and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore

are

are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Ruſſia is in general a flat, level country, except toward the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending to the Sea of Oral. And here we may obſerve, that from Peterſburgh to Pekin, one ſhall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Peterſburgh to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzick, Hamburg, and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea: it is reckoned the largeſt, and one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe, produces many kinds of fiſh, and fertilizes the lands on each ſide with trees, fruits, and vegetables. In this long courſe there is not one cataract to interrupt the navigation, but the nearer it approaches to the mouth, the river multiplies its number of iſles, and divides itſelf into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world: all theſe arms divide themſelves into others ſtill leſs, which join and meet again; ſo that the Wolga diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication, not only with all the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caſpian ſea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia, in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga, that the late czar intended to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal: all this grand project was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacs, and that of the Nagaiſch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourn, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance. To theſe may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itſelf at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its ſource near Uſtiaga, and dividing itſelf into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

Foreſts abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and north-eaſtern provinces are in a manner deſert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir tree foreſts. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Ruſſia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are ſmall, as are their cows and ſheep.

We know of few birds in Ruſſia, that have not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes, only the Ruſſians are better provided than their neighbours with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and beluga: the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and

is often called the large ſturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe of the ſturgeon and the beluga the Ruſſians make the famous cavear, ſo much eſteemed for richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-ſtone, concealed in that maſs of glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior part of the dorſal ſpine, ſupplying the place of a kidney in fiſh. When it is taken from the fiſh, it it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is that of a hen's egg, ſhape ſometimes oval and ſometimes flatted, and commonly ſells for a ruble. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by profeſſor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fiſh: it holds a conſiderable rank, though with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Ruſſians, who ſcrape it, and mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes of children, and other diſorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Nothing can be more remote from truth than the accounts we have from authors of the population of this vaſt empire, the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is ſurpriſing that ſuch a miſtake ſhould have continued ſo long, when we conſider the armies brought into the field by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Aſia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire produced a liſt, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amount to ſix millions ſix hundred and forty-ſix thouſand three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, or boys born between the making of one regiſter of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads ſubject to be taxed, including women and girls, we ſhall find near twenty millions of ſouls. The new regiſter in 1764 contains 8,500,000 ſubject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer reſident ſome time in Ruſſia gives the following eſtimate:

Lower claſs of people paying capitation tax, -	18,000,000
Conquered provinces, - - -	1,200,000
Noble families, - - - -	60,000
Clergy, - - - -	100,000
Military, - - -	360,000
Civil, - - - -	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Coſſacks, &c. - -	350,000
	20,100,000

To theſe muſt now be added near a million more by the acquiſitions of the Crimea, and part of Cuban Tartary; and at leaſt 1,500,000 in the provinces diſmembered from Poland.

As her imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſias poſſeſſes many of the countries from whence the ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire iſſued, there is reaſon to believe that her dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall-pox and the venereal diſeaſe may have aſſiſted in the depopulation; and it is likely that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquors, conſumed by the inhabitants of the North, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned probably by the ſnow, which for a long time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive

paſſive valour; but in the war with the king of Pruſſia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks they greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; they endure hardſhips with great patience, and can content themſelves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs: no leſs than 4000 brandy ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication; and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity appeared in the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays, that he could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers; and his account is corroborated by travellers who have lately viſited Ruſſia. The manufactures, however, of thoſe, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, treated little better than beaſts of burden, to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Ruſſians, before his time, had few ſhips upon their coaſts. They had no conveniencies for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent, a French or Engliſh gentleman may live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia, as in moſt other parts of Europe. Their polite aſſemblies, ſince the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient uſages remain. However, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among ſome ranks; and the bulk of the people are uncivilized.

The Ruſſians were noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign parts. This was the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majeſty even intereſts herſelf in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet.

It is ſaid that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families, as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they thought themſelves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is critically examined by a number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defects they find in her perſon. On her wedding-day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even among the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage-contract.

FUNERALS.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſſed, a prieſt is hired to pray for

his ſoul, to purify it with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by the biſhop and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpſe, the company returns to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication; which laſts, among the better ſort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a prieſt every day ſays prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer in his long journey to the place of his deſtination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Ruſſians were remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which were both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death. The ſingle and double knout have been inflicted upon ladies *, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders, and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it ſhould ceaſe. It is not always the number of the ſtrokes, but the method of applying them, which occaſions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by ſtriking upon the ribs; though perſons are ſometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred ſtrokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia;

* A particular account of the manner in which this puniſhment was inflicted upon a Ruſſian lady, is given in Monſ. l'Abbé Chappe D'Auteroche's journey into Siberia. "Mad. Lapouchin was one of the fineſt women belonging to the court of the empreſs Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign ambaſſador, then engaged in a conſpiracy. This lady, therefore, being ſuſpected to be concerned in the conſpiracy, was condemned, by the empreſs Elizabeth, to undergo the puniſhment of the knout. She appeared at the place of execution in a genteel undreſs, which contributed ſtill to heighten her beauty. The ſweetneſs of her countenance, and her vivacity, were ſuch as might indicate indiſcretion, but not even the ſhadow of guilt; although I have been aſſured by every perſon of whom I have made enquiry, that ſhe was really guilty. Young, lovely, admired, and ſought for at the court, of which ſhe was the life and ſpirit; inſtead of the number of admirers her beauty uſually drew after her, ſhe then ſaw herſelf ſurrounded only by executioners. She looked on them with aſtoniſhment, ſeeming to doubt whether ſuch preparations were intended for her. One of the executioners then pulled off a kind of cloak which covered her boſom; her modeſty taking the alarm, made her ſtart back a few ſteps; ſhe alſo turned pale, and burſt into tears. Her cloaths were ſoon after ſtripped off, and in a few moments ſhe was quite naked to the waiſt, expoſed to the eager looks of a vaſt concourſe of people profoundly ſilent. One of the executioners then ſeized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, ſo as to raiſe her a few inches from the ground: the other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs with his rough hands hardened at the plough, and, without any remorſe, adjuſted her on the back of his companion, in the propereſt poſture for receiving the puniſhment. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down; ſometimes, like a butcher going to ſlay a lamb, he ſeemed to ſoothe her, as ſoon as he had fixed her in the moſt favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip called knout, made of a long ſtrap of leather prepared for this purpoſe; he then retreated a few ſteps, meaſuring the requiſite diſtance with a ſteady eye; and leaping backwards, gave a ſtroke with the end of the whip, ſo as to carry away a ſlip of ſkin from the neck to the bottom of the back; then ſtriking his feet againſt the ground, he took his aim for applying a ſecond blow parallel to the former; ſo that in a few moments all the ſkin of her back was cut away in ſmall ſlips, moſt of which remained hanging to the ſhift. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and ſhe was directly baniſhed into Siberia. In 1762, ſhe was recalled from baniſhment by Peter III."

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and even the late empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the ſuppoſed neceſſity of thoſe tortures.

According to the ſtrict letter of the law, there are no capital puniſhments in Ruſſia, except in the caſe of high treaſon: but there is much leſs humanity in it than has been ſuppoſed; for there are many felons who die under the knout, and others die of fatigue in their journies to Siberia, and from the hardſhips they ſuffer in the mines: ſo that there is reaſon to believe, that not fewer criminals ſuffer death in Ruſſia than in thoſe countries wherein capital puniſhments are authoriſed by the laws. The prohibition of torture does honour to the humanity of the preſent empreſs.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and foreheads marked, are ſometimes ſentenced for life to the public works at Cronſtadt, Viſhnei Voloſhok, and other places; but the common practice is to ſend them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerſhink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at theſe mines. The greateſt part are confined in barracks, excepting thoſe who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themſelves and families.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Nothing ſtrikes, either a reader or a ſtranger, more than the facility with which the Ruſſians perform the longeſt and moſt uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, they travel in ſledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia, horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledge-way, in February, becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the ſledges, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo ſleep and travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburg and Moſcow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majeſty, in her journies, is drawn in a houſe which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies for four people, by 24 poſt-horſes; and the houſe itſelf is fixed on a ſledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA. } As the preſent ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners; and the great reformation introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Ruſſian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately, they were not admitted into the Ruſſian armies; but they now make excellent ſoldiers. Other Ruſſian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both ſides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Tſcheremiſſes and Morduars, a peaceable induſtrious people. The Baſkirs are likewiſe fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kaſan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges, of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the reſt of the tract to Aſtracan and the frontiers of the Uſbecs; and, in conſideration of certain preſents they receive from her imperial majeſty, they ſerve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The *Coſſacs*, who lately made a figure in the military hiſtory of Europe, were originally Poliſh peaſants, and ſerved in the Ukraine as a militia againſt the Tartars. Being oppreſſed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there eſtabliſhed a colony. They were ſoon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Aſoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after

laying it in aſhes. They next put themſelves under the protection of the Ruſſians, built Circaſka, on an iſland in the Don; and their poſſeſſions, which conſiſted of thirty-nine towns on both ſides that river, reached from Ribna to Aſoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were ſo wedded to their original cuſtoms, that they were little better than nominal ſubjects of the czars till the time of Peter the Great. They profeſſed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occaſionally ſerved againſt the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The internal government of the Coſſacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as deſcribed by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nations chooſe a chief, whom they call hauptman, and he reſides at Circaſka; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as a ſuperior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a ſeparate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is choſen annually. They ſerve in war, in conſideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have ſeveral times rebelled, for which they ſuffered ſeverely under Peter the Great. But the Ruſſian yoke was ſo much eaſier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Coſſacs of the Ukraine put themſelves likewiſe under the protection of Ruſſia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman, Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himſelf unable to fulfil the magnificent promiſes he had made to Charles. He brought over ſome of the Zaparovian Coſſacs, who were ſettled about the falls of the river Nieper, but moſt of them were cut in pieces.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kaſan, and of their deſcendants, are very uniform, and may ſerve for the characteriſtic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally ſtraight and well-made, have ſmall faces, with freſh complexions, and a ſprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, and of a very moderate capacity. They are ſober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatneſs. The Tartarian women are of a wholeſome complexion rather than handſome, and of a good conſtitution: from their earlieſt infancy they are accuſtomed to labour, retirement, modeſty, and ſubmiſſion. The Tartars of Kaſan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to ſobriety, and to a ſtrict obſervance of the manners of their anceſtors. They are taught to read and write, and are inſtructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the ſmalleſt village has its chapel, ſchool, prieſt, and ſchool-maſter; though ſome of theſe prieſts and ſchool-maſters are not much ſkilled in the Arabic language. The beſt Tartarian academies in the Ruſſian empire are thoſe of Kaſan, Tobolſk, and Aſtracan, which are under the direction of the Gagouns, or high-prieſts. It is not uncommon to find ſmall collections of hiſtorical anecdotes in manuſcript, in the huts of the boors; and their merchants, beſides what theſe little libraries contain, are pretty extenſively acquainted with the hiſtory of their own people, and that of the circumjacent ſtates with the antiquities of each. Such as chooſe to make a progreſs in theology, enter themſelves into the ſchools of Boughăria, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kaſan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exerciſe ſeveral trades, and have ſome manufactures. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter: coin is very rarely ſeen among them, and bills of exchange never. Many of them carry on a great deal of buſineſs. At Kaſan they prepare what is called in England, Morocco leather. The villages of theſe people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Theſe villages were at firſt compoſed

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of troops of wandering ſhepherds; but being drawn gradually cloſer together by ſucceſſive population, they found themſelves under the neceſſity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow, for which reaſon they uſe more manure than the Ruſſians. They are much attached to the cultivation of bees; many of them are perfect maſters of this part of rural œconomy, and reap great profit from it. Moſt of the villages alſo contain tanners, ſhoe-makes, taylors, dyers, ſmiths, and carpenters. The laborious females ſpin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation.

The moveables of theſe Tartars are, for the moſt part, only ſuch as are neceſſary to the real wants of life. Their catalogue of kitchen and table furniture is very ſhort; and they have but few utenſils of agriculture and mechanics. A cheſt or two, ſome carpets and pieces of felt, mats made of the bark of trees, with which they cover broad benches, that they uſe inſtead of beds, with a few chairs and tables, are commonly all the furniture to be ſeen in their houſes; though ſome of the principal people have ſtuffed cuſhions and pillows on their ſleeping benches. But chairs and tables are only ſeen in towns; and even there, never but in the houſes of ſuch as have buſineſs with foreigners. They commonly make four meals a day, at which their bench ſerves them for table and chairs; for on this they place themſelves round the diſhes, each perſon ſitting on his heels, after the oriental manner. They make ablutions, and ſay prayers, at the beginning and end of all their meals. The Tartars of Kaſan, as well as moſt of the Mahometan Tartars, are very polite, both among one another, and towards ſtrangers. Old men, who have maintained good characters, are held in great veneration among them; and a great beard is conſidered as naturally entitling a man to reſpect. They are fond of aſking advice of their old men, who have always preference and precedence, and are the arbitrators in all diſputes.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages of Aſtracan are perfectly ſimilar with thoſe of the Tartars of Kaſan. In the city of Aſtracan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, and Bougharians: and their manufactories of Morocco leather, cottons, camelots, and ſilks, are in a very thriving ſtate.

The *Finns* have a cloſe reſemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civilized, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have ſchools and academies, and make ſome progreſs in the arts and ſciences. They profeſs the Lutheran faith, and uſe the Chriſtian æra in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exerciſe moſt of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fiſhing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a conſiderable degree of freedom, as the Ruſſian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiaks* a Finniſh race, chiefly inhabit the province of Viaitk, in the government of Kaſan. This nation was one of thoſe who were formerly under the protection of the Tartars; but ſince it has been ſubjected to Ruſſia, it has preferred the quiet and ſecurity, which agriculture affords, to the ambulatory life of herdſmen and ſhepherds, and fixed habitations to their ancient tents. The Votiaks are of a middle ſtature, and generally red-haired; they are honeſt, peaceable, and hoſpitable: but ſuperſtitious and very credulous. They are aſſiduous in rural œconomy, neglecting neither the culture of bees, nor the chace; in the latter they uſe indifferently the bow or fire-arms. In their leiſure hours many of them employ themſelves in making all ſorts of turnery, ſuch as cups, ſpoons, and ſhuttles; and others varniſh all kinds of cups and bowls. The women are employed in ſewing,

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in making linen, coarſe cloths, and ornaments of embroidery. Some of the Votiaks are Chriſtians, but a great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even theſe believe the doctrine of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

The *Oſtiaks*, likewiſe a Finniſh race, are one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in ſubjection to Ruſſia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their deſcendants are ſtill reputed noble. As theſe people divide themſelves into different flocks or tribes, they chooſe their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe maintain peace and good order, and ſuperintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the caſe with other Finniſh nations. Theſe people have a ſingular cuſtom, that the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the preſence of her father-in-law; nor is the ſon-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law till his wife has had a child. They are idolaters; and one of their opinions is, that bears enjoy after death a happineſs at leaſt equal to that which they expect for themſelves. Whenever they kill one of theſe animals, they ſing ſongs over him, in which they aſk his pardon for the injury they have done him. They alſo hang up his ſkin, to which they ſhew many civilities, and pay many compliments, to induce him not to take vengeance on them in the world of ſpirits. Indeed, it appears that bears are in great eſtimation among all the Pagan nations of the north, and north-eaſt.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle ſtature, have generally black hair, and a ſcanty beard. They are of a gay diſpoſition, honeſt, laborious, and acute; but ſlovenly and fickle, and inclined to be extremely paſſionate. Their women are well made, robuſt, civil, and laborious. They are unacquainted with the uſe of letters, as well as ſome of their kindred nations: they do not reckon their time by years, though they mark the months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature which they obſerve in their foreſts. They diſtinguiſh themſelves into tribes or races; and a Vogoul village is commonly compoſed only of one family, whoſe chief or elder performs the functions of ſtaroſte, or magiſtrate of the village: their principal occupation is the chace, in which they diſcover much eagerneſs and addreſs; uſing indiſcriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the ſpear. They are alſo ſkilful in contriving traps, ſnares, gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tſchouwaſches* dwell along the two ſides of the Wolga, in the governments of Niſchnei-Novogorod, Kaſan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but aſſemble in ſmall villages, and chooſe the foreſts for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpoſe ſcrew-barrel muſkets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding-night the bride is obliged to pull off her huſband's boots. A late writer ſays, "Among the Tſchouwaſches the huſband is maſter of the houſe; he orders every "thing himſelf; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply: a cuſtom "calculated to prevent domeſtic broils. Accordingly quarrels are very uncommon "in the families of the Tſchouwaſches."

The *Kirguiſians* have a frank and prepoſſeſſing air, ſimilar to that which characterizes the Tartars of Kaſan. They have a ſharp, but not a fierce look, and ſmaller eyes than thoſe Tartars. They have good natural ſenſe, are affable, and high-ſpirited; but fond of their eaſe, and voluptuous. They dwell in portable huts, wandering about their deſerts in ſearch of paſturage for their flocks and herds, which conſtitute their principal occupation. As their courſes are regulated by neceſſity, in ſummer they traverſe the northern deſerts, and in winter the ſouthern parts. It is when they have nothing elſe to do that they follow hunting and fiſhing, and agriculture is abſolutely unknown to them. Their troops of cattle conſiſt of horſes, camels, cows, goats, and ſheep, which ſupply them with food and raiment. Camels are of great ſervice to them throughout their whole œconomy, car-

rying their huts and furniture at every change of ſtation, which they do to the weight of nine hundred pounds. The Kirguiſians dreſs in the eaſtern manner, but their clothes are for the moſt part better than thoſe worn by the other Tartars. The decoration of their horſes employs them almoſt as much as that of their perſons; they having generally elegant ſaddles, handſome houſings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they alſo ſmoke tobacco to exceſs. Men, women, and children, all ſmoke, and take ſnuff: they keep the latter in little horns faſtened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live in the ſame manner as the reſt of the people, and are diſtinguiſhed only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their calvalcades, and the number of huts which ſurround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and ſlaves.

The *Tunguſians* form one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle ſtature, and well made. Their ſight and hearing are of a degree of acuteneſs and delicacy that is almoſt incredible; but their organs of ſmelling and feeling are inferior to ours. They are acquainted with almoſt every tree and ſtone within the circuit of their perambulations; and they can even deſcribe a courſe of ſome hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and ſtones they meet with, and can enable others to take the ſame route by ſuch deſcription. They alſo diſcover the tracts of the game by the compreſſion of the graſs or moſs. They learn foreign languages with eaſe, are alert on horſeback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the moſt part rawboned and ſtout. Their viſage is ſo flat that the ſkull of a Kalmuc may eaſily be known from others. They have thick lips, a ſmall noſe and a ſhort chin, their complexion a reddiſh and yellowiſh brown. Their women are of a ſimilar ſhape with the men, and their ſkin a wholeſome white and red; they are lively, agreeable, and induſtrious. The character of this tribe is, rough, but leſs diſſolute than is commonly ſuppoſed. They are much attached to their chiefs or maſters, but their active ſpirit, and their improvidence and careleſſneſs, make them thieviſh and dirty. In their robberies, they uſe more ſtratagem than violence, and as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's ſpirits, are ſeldom guilty of murder. They are ſuperſtitious about good and bad days, and have written laws, which are founded on reaſon, cuſtom, and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females, and never looks upon a woman as the author of any crime. Rape and adultery is puniſhed with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their ſpeech is a mongrel dialect, with many Tartarian words, but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The ſole profeſſion among them is the breeding of cattle; they purſue the chace as an amuſement: their dwelling is in tents, or yourts of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Ruſſians *kibitka*, and much reſemble the Kirguiſians. Their clothing is oriental. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their noſtrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild: even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of diſtemper or age; ſo that in every hord the fleſh-market hath the appearance of a lay-ſtall of carrion: they eat likewiſe the roots and plants of their deſerts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both ſexes ſmoke continually: during the ſummer they keep to the north, and in winter to the ſouthern deſerts. They ſleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themſelves with the ſame.

The *Kamtſchadales* have a lively imagination, a ſtrong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fiſhing. The chace furniſhes them with ſables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fiſhing, and are well acquainted with the proper ſeaſons for it. Their nets are made of the ſtamina of nettles. When they are not engaged in hunting and fiſhing, they ſometimes employ themſelves in building huts, forming different wooden utenſils, cutting wood

for

for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows: but much of their time is paſſed in abſolute idleneſs; for they are naturally extremely indolent. Poverty gives them no concern; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chace. They live in villages, conſiſting of a few ſmall houſes, and ſituated in general near ſome river. When a village becomes too populous, they ſeparate and form a new village. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domeſtic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dogs, harneſs, and all, coſts in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they embraced the Chriſtian religion. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance; and extremely ſingular in the enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this forlorn region, ſo long unknown to Europe, ſome new mines have lately been diſcovered, which, upon their firſt opening, have yielded, 45,000 pounds of fine ſilver, ſaid to have been obtained with little difficulty or expence. But Kamtſchatka is now conſidered as the moſt horrid place of exile in the vaſt empire of Ruſſia, and hither ſome of the greateſt criminals are ſent.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are too numerous and complicated to be diſcuſſed here. They deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly; an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for their ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments and Trinity. They oblige their biſhops and other eccleſiaſtics, but not their ſecular prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhewed his profound knowledge of government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He declared himſelf the head of the church; and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend for ſubſiſtence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his time, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. Theſe abuſes are now in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun, till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors. The preſent empreſs has annexed the church-lands to the crown, and in return grants penſions to the higher clergy and the monks.

The conquered provinces retain the exerciſe of their religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia, and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarepta: the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Ruſſia is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, and the moſt learned of their clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek; and they who know that language in its purity are at no loſs for underſtanding it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have at preſent thirty letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Ruſſians hitherto have made but an inconſiderable appearance in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the inſtitution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all other Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marſhal, at the late opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed at Peterſburg and Moſcow, is an evidence that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſciences. Many of the Greek and Latin claſſics have been tranſlated by natives into the Ruſſian language. However, the efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A ſmall glimmering, like the firſt day-break, was ſeen under czar Iwan in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conſpicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz: but under Peter it burſt forth with the ſplendor of a riſing ſun, and hath continued ever ſince to aſcend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries, who furniſh medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this City. The preſent empreſs has alſo founded an univerſity at Peterſburg, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good ſalaries; and alſo a a military academy, where the young nobility and officers' ſons are taught the art of war. It ought alſo to be mentioned to the honour of the ſame royal benefactreſs, that ſhe is actually employed in founding a number of ſchools, for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt inhabited parts of the empire; an inſtitution of the moſt benevolent tendency, which, if rightly executed, will intitle the Great Catherine, as much as any of her predeceſſors, to the gratitude of the Ruſſian nation.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS.] Peterſburg naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation, by being informed that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of a few ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; by which its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into a minute deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay that it extends about ſix miles every way; and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, and commerce, that are to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deſerves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the empreſs's

expence; 200 of them of ſuperior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradeſmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements ſuitable to their conditions of life, and thoſe of the lower claſs are preſented with a ſum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themſelves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a foundling hoſpital, aſſiſtant to that noble one eſtabliſhed at Moſcow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then, after the utmoſt attention to her, ſhe leaves the child to the ſtate, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Peterſburgh is the emporium of Ruſſia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer-time is ſurpriſing. In winter, 3000 one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It is ſuppoſed that there are above 130,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almoſt every ſect of the Chriſtian religion is tolerated. It alſo contains five palaces, ſome of which are ſuperb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that ſide next the ſea by the fortreſs of Cronſtadt; which, conſidering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is ſufficient to guard it on that ſide from the attempts of any enemy. Peterſburgh is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes. In the neighbourhood of this city are many country-houſes and gardens.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands on the river from whence it takes its name in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London; and though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very pictureſque appearance; for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable anthors: but we are to make great allowances for the ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Buſchin ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on, computed to be near 26 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three places or ſquares. The merchants' exchange contains about 6000 fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contraſt than Moſcow of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are ſpacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it ſtands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palaces, pleaſure-houſes, and ſtables, a victualling-houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt, or covered with ſilver: the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with forty-eight lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. The ſumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer and chancery, are noble ſtructures. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can only be equalled by what is ſeen at Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing,

thing, did not neglect Moſcow at the time he was building Peterſburgh; for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The foundling hoſpital at Moſcow is an excellent inſtitution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the preſent empreſs, and is ſupported by voluntarily contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immenſe pile of building, of a quadrangular ſhape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when the eſtabliſhment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen, they have the liberty of chooſing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpoſe there are different ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves: a ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling for that purpoſe, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a very conſiderable privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiſſion of their maſters.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was ambaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes were computed at 40,000. When Voltaire wrote, Moſcow was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants ſaid to amount to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms this account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the ſtatement of its population much exaggerated; according to an account which was given to him by an Engliſh gentleman, which he received from the lieutenant of the police, and which he ſays may be relied on, Moſcow contains within the ramparts 250,000 ſouls, and in the adjacent villages 50,000.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruſſia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many ſtupenduos monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old ſepulchres of an unknown nation, whoſe inſtruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Peterſburgh is a rhinoceros dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his ſkin, and the hair upon it perfect. The Ruſſians have a great paſſion for bell-ringing; and we are told, that the great bell of Moſcow, the largeſt in the world, weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, "432,000 pounds, and which exceeds in bigneſs every bell in the known world. Its ſize is ſo enormous, that I could ſcarcely have given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it myſelf, and aſcertained its dimenſions with great exactneſs. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greateſt thickneſs twenty-three inches." It was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne; but the beam on which it hung being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. Mr. Bruce, in his late Memoirs, mentions a bell at Moſcow, founded in czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, and two in thickneſs, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Peterſburg, and raiſing it from a few fiſhing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curioſity hardly to be paralleled ſince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburg, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city employed, for ſome years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people, at the time when they could hardly be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perſon at all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MARITIME FORCE. In treating of the Ruſſian commerce, former accounts are of little ſervice, becauſe of its great improvements and variations. By the beſt and ſureſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to about 2,400,000l. and her imports do not exceed 1,600,000l. ſo that the balance of trade is yearly 800,000l. ſterling in her favour *.

Ruſſia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, ſail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, iſing-glaſs, linſeed oil, pot-aſh, ſoap, feathers, train-oil, hogs briſtles, muſk, rhubarb, and other drugs; timber, and alſo raw ſilk from China and Perſia. Her foreign commerce is much increaſed ſince her conqueſts from Sweden, eſpecially of Livonia and Ingria; and ſince the eſtabliſhing of her new emporium of Peterſburgh, whereby her naval intercourſe with Europe is made much more ſhort and eaſy. The Ukraine may be called the granaries of the empire; the beſt corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 horned cattle are annually ſent from its paſtures into Sileſia and Saxony.

Ruſſia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, ſilk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bocharia, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Ruſſia ſends her own merchandize, in return for Indian ſilks, curled lamb-ſkins, and ready money; and alſo from the annual fair at Samarcand: ſhe likewiſe trades to Perſia by Aſtracan, croſs the Caſpian ſea, for raw and wrought ſilk. The empreſs, in 1784, iſſued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by ſea and land with the ſeveral countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The ſame privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherſon, Sebaſtopolis, Theodoſia (formerly Caffa), in the province of Taurica, as in Peterſburg.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Ruſſia had with the reſt of Europe; but it was ſubject to a long and tempeſtuous voyage. They have now 13 ports, Archangel, Peterſburg, Riga, Revel, Perneau, Narva, Wibourg, Fredericſham, Aſtracan, and Kola; and the three opened in their new conqueſts. This town is about three Engliſh miles in length, and one in breadth; built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of ſtone. Notwithſtanding the decreaſe of the trade of Archangel, by building Peterſburg, it ſtill exports a conſiderable quantity of merchandize. Their maſts and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the foreſts of Kaſan, that border on the province of Aſtracan.

The preſent ſtate of theirnavy, according to a late liſt, is 36 men of war of the line, 25 frigates, 109 galleys, 10 proams, from 50 to 24 guns, two bombs, ſeven pinks, &c.; 15000 ſailors are kept in conſtant pay and ſervice, either on board the ſhips, or in the dock yards. The harbour is at Cronſtadt, ſeven leagues from Peterſburg, defended on one ſide by a fort of four baſtions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large baſon will contain near 600 ſail of ſhips.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DISTINCTION OF RANK. The ſovereign of the Ruſſian empire is abſolute and deſpotic, and maſter of the lives and properties of all his ſubjects; who, though they are of the firſt nobility, or have been highly inſtrumental in promoting the welfare of the ſtate, may, notwithſtanding, for the moſt trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be ſent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life on the public works, and have all their goods confiſcated, whenever the ſovereign or his miniſters ſhall think proper. When perſons of any rank are baniſhed into Siberia, their poſſeſſions are confiſcated, and a whole family may

* See Coxe's Travels, vol. ii. p. 247.

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at once be ruined by the inſinuations of an artful courtier. The ſecret court of chancery, which was a tribunal compoſed of a few miniſters, choſen by the ſovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy; but this court was ſuppreſſed by Peter III.

The ſyſtem of civil laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia is very imperfect, and in many inſtances barbarous and unjuſt; being an aſſemblage of laws and regulations drawn from moſt of the ſtates of Europe, ill digeſted, and in many reſpects not adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. The courts of juſtice were in general very corrupt, and thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered extremely ignorant; but the empreſs hath lately made ſome judicious regulations, and fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients, and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. It is hoped that the new code of laws, for which ſhe hath given inſtructions, will ſoon be produced, to increaſe the people's liberty, ſecurity, and felicity.

The diſtinctions of rank form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſſes took the title of Autocratrix, which implies that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till they were reduced by the czar; but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes, and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the preſent and late empreſſes have introduced among their ſubjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES.] The revenues of this mighty empire are, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her preſent imperial majeſty, have greatly added to their income, which can ſcarcely be reckoned at leſs than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling annually. Thus computed:

	RUBLES.
Capitation tax, - - -	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties, - - -	7,000,000
Her own eſtates, with other dominions taken from the clergy,	6,000,000
Produce of the mines, - - -	1,500,000
Monopoly of diſtilled liquors, - -	4,000,000
Monopoly of ſalt, - - -	1,800,000
	28,800,000

The deficiency of the ſum total may be eaſily made up by the profit ariſing from ſtamp-paper, patents, poſt-office, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, beſides *one* per cent. every Ruſſian merchant is obliged to pay on his yearly capital.

When the reader conſiders this ſum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, he will find it a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies maintained and paid by the late and preſent empreſs, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. The other expences, beſides the payment of the army and navy of her preſent majeſty, the number and diſcipline of which are at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, is very conſiderable. By the peace eſtabliſhment in 1778, the regular troops amounted to about

130,000 effective men. The irregular troops are numerous, but conſiſt of horſe, and of this deſultory body the corps of Coſſacs are eſteemed the moſt excellent. Her court is elegant and magnificent, her guards and attendants ſplendid, and the encouragement ſhe gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſt her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expences of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies, which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter the Great was his imitating the conduct of Henry the VIIIth of England in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy are taxed in Ruſſia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed at little or no expence; and, while in their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people, according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier ſcarcely amounts to 30 ſhillings yearly; in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a month, and they are found in proviſions when a-ſhore.

ORDERS.] The order of St. *Andrew*, or the blue ribband, inſtituted by Peter the Great in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in the wars againſt the Turks. He choſe St. Andrew for its patron, becauſe by tradition he was the founder of Chriſtianity in the country. The knights are perſons of the firſt rank in the empire. The badge is the image of St. Andrew on the croſs, enamelled on an imperial eagle. The order of St. *Alexander Newſki* *, or the red ribband, was alſo inſtituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empreſs Catherine I. in the year 1725: the enſign of the order is a croſs pattée enamelled red, and edged with gold; the centre enamelled white, and thereon St Alexander on horſeback. The order of St. *Catharine* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empreſs for her aſſiſtance on the Banks of the Pruth. He declared her ſovereign of it, and though both ſexes were firſt admitted, yet it is now appropriated to the fair alone, and perſons of the firſt diſtinction in Europe: the badge is a medallion enriched with diamonds and charged with the image of St. Catharine, pendant to a broad white ribband worn ſaſhwiſe over the right ſhoulder: on the left ſide of the ſtomacher is embroidered a ſilver ſtar of three points, on the centre of which is a croſs. The order of St. *George*, inſtituted in 1769 by the preſent empreſs Catherine II. in favour of the military officers in her ſervice. The badge is a golden croſs enamelled white, on the centre of which is a medallion with the figure of St. George killing the Dragon: this is worn pendant to a black ribband ſtriped and edged with yellow. The order is divided into four claſſes; the firſt is confined to commanders in chief. The order of St. *Woledemir* was inſtituted about October 3d, 1782, by the empreſs in favour of thoſe who ſerve her in a civil capacity, and nearly on the ſame footing with the order of St. George: there are ten great croſſes of it, twenty of the ſecond claſs, thirty of the third, and ſixty of the fourth, beſides a fifth claſs for thoſe who have ſerved in a civil employment 35 years, which entitles them to wear it. The order of St. *Anne* of Holſtein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great, was introduced into Ruſſia by Peter III. and is in the diſpoſal of the great-duke, as ſovereign of Holſtein.

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent were formerly

* Alexander, ſon of the great-duke Yaroſlaf, was of diſtinguiſhed abilities: he defeated the Tartars, Swedes, &c. and wounded the king of Sweden with his own hand, on the banks of the Neva: from whence his appellation of Newſki: he died in 1262.

rich

rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In latter times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered with Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital under Jenghis Kan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in hiſtory; and nothing is more certain than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the 9th century, but they have vended a tradition, that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by ſome conſidered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a ſimple boatman, who uſed to tranſport goods and paſſengers acroſs the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand-duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the ſmalleſt degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the hiſtory of Ruſſia, higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century; when a princeſs of this country, called Olha, is ſaid to have been baptized at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptize the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubject and tributary to the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Iwan Baſilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is ſaid to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and ſilver. His proſperous reign, of above 40 years, gave a new aſpect to Ruſſia.

His grandſon, the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtracan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. He gave to his ſubjects the firſt code of laws, introduced printing, and promoted commerce. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations afterwards rendered by that of great-duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar, (an expreſſion which, in the Sclavonian language, ſignifies *king*), was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled up by a ſet of weak, cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, whoſe ſiſter Irene was married to the czar Feodor, according to Voltaire, aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had eſcaped from his murderers; and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him), he drove out the uſurper, and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him, and he was murdered. If we except the unjuſtifiable means by which Boris raiſed himſelf to the throne, and his ambition and revenge, he muſt be eſteemed an excellent ſovereign, and his loſs was ſenſibly felt: driven to deſpair he ſwallowed poiſon in the ninth year of his reign, 1605. Mr. Coxe thinks that the perſon who ſtiled himſelf Demetrius was not an impoſtor, but the real ſon of Ivan II. preſerved from the aſſaſſination intended for him, by his mother's ſubſtituting another child in his place, and ſending him privately to a convent. The

public neglect of the Ruſſian cuſtoms and religious ceremonies after his ſucceſſion, alienated the people's affections, and precipitated him from the throne as rapidly as he had aſcended it. After a year's reign he was murdered by an inſurrection in his own palace, and the leader of it, Vaſſili Shuiſki, was elected in his room.

Ruſſia now became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, in the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Uladiſlaus, ſon to Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended of the ancient ſovereigns of Ruſſia, had been ſent ambaſſador to Poland, and there was detained priſoner by Sigiſmund III. under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus. The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in the caſtle of Marienburgh, that they elected their ſon, Michael Fædorowitz, of the houſe of Romanoff, a youth of 16 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia; and being created patriarch by his ſon, and inveſted with the adminiſtration of affairs, he governed with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claims of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a breathing-time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England ſent, at his invitation, ſir John Meyrick, as his ambaſſador to Ruſſia, upon ſome commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain ſum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predeceſſors. The Engliſh court, however, was ſo ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Ruſſian company had been eſtabliſhed at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of great-duke and lord of Ruſſia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which ſhews him to have been not only well acquainted with the intereſts of his own ſubjects, but the laws and uſages of nations. He reigned thirty-three years; and, by his wiſdom and the mildneſs of his character, he reſtored eaſe and tranquillity to his ſubjects. He encouraged them to induſtry, and gave them the example of very commendable behaviour in his own perſon. Before we take leave of Michael, it may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of their ſubjects, and which are as follow. His czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czar, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by ſending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father, who pleaſed Michael, was Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine; but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand ſignior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that his ſcymitar was as good as the grand ſignior's ſabre." He promoted agriculture;

ture; introduced into his empire arts and ſciences, of which he was himſelf a lover; publiſhed a code of laws, ſome of which are ſtill uſed in the adminiſtration of juſtice; and greatly improved his army by improving its diſcipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of ſtrangers, moſt of whom were Scotch. He cultivated a polite correſpondence with the other powers of Europe; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambaſſadors not to kiſs the pope's toe. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, was hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions: and inſtead of putting to death, or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore ſucceeded his father Alexius in 1667. He was of a gentle diſpoſition, and weak conſtitution; fond of pomp and magnificence; and, in gratifying this propenſity, contributed to poliſh his ſubjects, by the introduction of foreign manufactures, and articles of elegance, which they ſoon began to adopt and imitate. He delighted much in horſes, and he rendered a real ſervice to his country in the beginning and eſtabliſhing very-fine breeds of them in the Ukraine, and elſewhere. He reigned ſeven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars round him, in the preſence of his brother and ſiſter, Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards ſo celebrated, and who was his half-brother, according to Voltaire, he ſaid to them, "Hear my laſt ſentiments; they are dictated by my love for the ſtate, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Iwan neceſſarily muſt affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling a dominion like that of Ruſſia; he cannot take it amiſs, if I recommend to you to ſet him aſide, and to let your approbation fall on Peter, who to a robuſt conſtitution joins great ſtrength of mind, and marks of a ſuperior underſtanding." From the moſt authentic records, it appears, that Peter did not owe his elevation to any declaration of Theodore in his favour, but merely to the ſuffrages of thoſe perſons who aſſerted the right of nominating the ſucceſſor. Peter was choſen, and the government entruſted to Natalia, his mother. But the party in oppoſition was very powerful. The Strelitz or Ruſſian regiments of guards, poſſeſſed above 14000 armed votes, and not being ſatisfied with their colonels, or the excluſion of the elder brother from the throne, they ſurrounded the palace, and inſiſted on the execution of the Naraſkins, the czarina's chief relations. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription. The city of Moſcow underwent a general pillage and maſſacre for three days. At laſt, by a compromiſe between the two parties, Iwan and Peter were declared joint-ſovereigns, May 18, 1682; but as one was judged incapable of governing, and Peter was only ten years old, the adminiſtration was veſted in their ſiſter, who was of popular manners and great abilities. However Voltaire and other authors may have blackened Sophia's character, it is now evident, from Muller and other good authorities *, that ſhe was a princeſs of great merit, and by no means deſerving of the reproaches caſt upon her: her adminiſtration was wiſe and vigilant, and much to the advantage of her country. She repoſed much confidence in prince Baſil Galitzin, a conſummate politician. Peter, as he advanced in years, being encouraged by his mother and her adherents, claimed a ſhare in adminiſtration, and took his ſeat in the privy council, Jan. 25, 1688. From this period diſſenſions aroſe between them, and the aſpiring genius of Peter acquired the aſcendancy. Under the pretence of a conſpiracy againſt his life, he arreſted his ſiſter, and impriſoned her for life in the nunnery of Devitz: ſhe died in 1704. Galitzin's life was ſpared, but his great eſtate was confiſcated; and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment. "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement czar to

* Coxe's Travels, 4to. vol. i. p. 395 to 418.

repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, allows thee three pence per day for thy ſubſiſtence." He died in priſon at Pooſtork in 1713. This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and eaſy Iwan, and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future ſecurity by the execution of above 3000 Strelitz, and at the ſame time broke the whole body, and aboliſhed their name.

It far exceeds the bounds preſcribed to this work to give even a ſummary detail of this great prince's actions. All that is neceſſary in this place is to give a general view of his power, and the vaſt reformation he introduced into his dominions. Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, aſſociated himſelf with Germans and Dutch; with the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſes of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the inſolence of the Strelitz. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He ſet out as an attendant upon his own ambaſſadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous and too well known to be inſerted here. By working as a common ſhip-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and through the excellent diſcipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or cruſhed all civil inſurrections, but all his enemies on this ſide of Aſia; and at laſt he exterminated, except two feeble regiments, the whole of the Strelitzes. He roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land; and the many defeats which he received, eſpecially that from Charles XII. at Narva, ſeemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he loſt rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendſhip he ſhewed to Auguſtus, king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank diſtinct from merit; and he, in 1711, married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh dragoon at Marienburg. General Bauer, taking that place in 1701, was ſmitten with her, and took her to his houſe. She was ſoon removed into the family of the prince Menzikoff, with whom ſhe lived till 1704, when in the 17th year of her age ſhe became the miſtreſs of Peter, and then his wife; becauſe, after a long cohabition, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul formed to execute his plans, and to aſſiſt his councils. Catharine was ſo much a ſtranger to her own country, that her huſband afterwards diſcovered her brother, who ſerved as a common ſoldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which ſucceeded one another after the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himſelf with equal aſſiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences; and upon the whole, he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion, even in Europe itſelf, that he may be ſaid, at the time of his death, which happened in January, 1725, to have been the moſt powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his ſubjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldeſt ſon, who was called the Czarowitz, and who, marrying without his conſent, entered, as his father alledged, into ſome dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a ſovereign ſo deſpotic as Peter was, we can ſay nothing as to the juſtice of the charge. He publicly treated him with inhuman ferocity, and it was undoubtedly his will, that the young prince ſhould be found guilty.

It

It is ſaid, that as ſoon as the ſentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, wherein were the following words, "The divine, eccleſiaſtical, civil, and military laws condemn to death, without mercy, all thoſe whoſe attempts againſt their father and their ſovereign are manifeſt," he fell into the moſt violent convulſions, from which it was with the greateſt difficulty that he regained a little interval of ſenſe, during which he deſired his father would come to ſee him, when he aſked his pardon, and ſoon after died. But the moſt probable opinion is that he was ſecretly executed in priſon, and that marſhal Weyde was the perſon who beheaded him. After this event, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame magnificent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and this was the principal cauſe of her ſubſequent elevation. For juſt before his death he diſcovered a ſecret connection between her and her firſt chamberlain Mons. He ſurpriſed them together in an arbour of the garden, when ſtriking her with his cane, as well as the page, who would have prevented him from entering the arbour, he retired without uttering a ſingle word. But preſently Mons was taken up, and being threatened with the torture, confeſſed, and was beheaded. The day after the execution Peter conveyed Catharine in an open carriage under the gallows to which the head of Mons was nailed. It is ſaid, that the empreſs without changing colour at this dreadful ſight, exclaimed, "What a pity! that there is ſo much corruption among courtiers!" This event was ſoon followed by Peter's death, who probably had deſtined his eldeſt daughter Anne to be his ſucceſſor, but the ſuddenneſs of his death prevented it; and ſome of the nobles and officers being gained by money, jewels, and promiſes, and the two regiments of guards by a largeſs, Catharine mounted the Ruſſian throne. She was in her perſon under the middle ſize, and her abilities have been greatly exaggerated: ſhe could neither read nor write: her daughter Elizabeth uſually ſigned her name for her, and particularly to her laſt will and teſtament. During her ſhort reign, of two years, which may rather be conſidered as the reign of Menzikoff, her life was very irregular. An intemperate uſe of tokay wine, joined to a cancer and dropſy, haſtened her end on the 17th of May, 1727. She was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to the Czarowitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during the ſhort reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the diſgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe, the original author of her good fortunes. Peter died of the ſmall-pox, in 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Ruſſian ſenate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide the order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of Peter was now extinguiſhed; and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to his eldeſt daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown: but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne with Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldeſt brother; though her eldeſt ſiſter, the ducheſs of Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was extremely proſperous; and though ſhe accepted of the crown under limitations that ſome thought derogatory to her dignity, yet, by the aſſiſtance of the guards, ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dolgorucki family, who had impoſed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is ſaid, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland, and was obliged to give way to many ſanguinary meaſures and ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece, the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, was by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, and unpopular among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklen-

burgh to arreſt Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was ſent in exile to Siberia, where he continued till Peter III. recalled him, and Catharine reſtored him to the duchy of Courland.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh and her huſband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connections, diſagreeable, not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of Europe; and, notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was proclaimed empreſs of the Ruſſias; and the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, her huſband, and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed capital puniſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time ſhe puniſhed the counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. Count Munich was confined at Pelin in Siberia, in a priſon, which by his order was erected for Biron; he had a daily allowance of 12s. for himſelf, wife, and a few ſervants. After 21 years impriſonment he was releaſed and reſtored to his ancient rank by Peter III. in 1762, and died in 1765, eighty-three years old. The chief diſgrace of her reign, was the puniſhment of the counteſſes Beſtucheff and Lapuchin: each received 50 ſtrokes of the knout in the open ſquare of Peterſburg, their tongues were cut out, and then baniſhed into Siberia. The real crime of the laſt was her commenting too freely on the empreſs's amours. Having glorioufly finiſhed the war with Sweden, ſhe replaced the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Ruſſia; and ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, ſhe called him to her court, where he renounced the ſucceſſion to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, by whom he had a ſon, who is now heir to the Ruſſian empire. Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large ſubſidy; but many political and ſome private reaſons, it is ſaid, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia in 1756. Her arms gave a turn to the ſucceſs of the war, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conqueſts were ſuch as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was, perhaps, ſaved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand-duke of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein, a prince whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeemed to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. Several ſalutary regulations were made during his ſhort reign, and he aboliſhed many prerogatives that were oppreſſive and tyrannical. But he ſoon incurred the general odium by his public contempt of the Ruſſian manners and religion. He might have ſurmounted the effects of many peculiarities, unpopular as they were, but he aimed at eccleſiaſtical reformations in his dominions, which Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is alſo alledged, that he had formed a reſolution to deſtroy both his empreſs and her ſon; and the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge, that he had reſolved to ſhut up his wife in a convent, or rather in the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg, and then to place his miſtreſs, the counteſs of Voronzof, upon the throne, if not to change the order of ſucceſſion. However, the execution

of

of his deſigns was prevented by a conſpiracy being formed againſt him, in which the empreſs took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince ſcarcely knew an interval between the loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement at Robſcha, in July, 1762. That his conduct, with regard to Pruſſia, was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition, ſeems evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who now reigns by the title of Catharine II. That princeſs, with regard to Pruſſia, trod in her huſband's ſteps.

The moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrence of her reign hitherto is the death of prince Iwan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh. This young prince, as ſoon as he came into the world was deſigned, though illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Ruſſia, after the death of his great aunt, the empreſs Anna Iwanona; but by the advancement of the empreſs Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obſcure life in the caſtle of Schluſſelburg under a ſtrong guard, who had particular orders, that if any perſon, or any armed force, was employed in attempting to deliver him, they ſhould kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his priſon when the empreſs, Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which depoſed her huſband Peter III. had occaſioned a ſtrong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehenſive that ſome attempts might be made in favour of Iwan: ſhe therefore donbled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entruſted him to the care of two officers, who were devoted to her intereſt. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at leaſt pretended ſo, to deliver Iwan by force of arms from the fortreſs of Schluſſelburg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death, the 16th of July, 1764, after an impriſonment of 23 yeats. The lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arreſted, and afterwards beheaded, and his body burnt with the ſcaffold.

While this event excited the attention of the Ruſſian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland, which has generally been the caſe when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Ruſſia, the empreſs Catharine ſent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowſki was raiſed to the throne. She alſo interpoſed in order to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majeſty's armies gave to the Roman Catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, increaſed the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies againſt all that had been done during the late election; which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The conduct of Ruſſia, with regard to Poland, gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the Grand Signior ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the Seven Towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland. Hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March, 1769, Crim Gueray, Khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, ſupported by 10,000 Spahis, having broken the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captive. In April following, the Grand Vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time, prince Galitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army on the banks of the Neiſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of the great Turkiſh force in that quarter. He advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince attacked the Turks in their entrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length beat them

out of their trenches, followed them into the ſuburbs of Choczim, and their purſuit was only ſtopped by the palliſadoes of the fortreſs. Soon after, the town was ſet on fire by red-hot balls, and a great number of Jews and Chriſtians took refuge in the Ruſſian camp. From theſe ſucceſſes of the Ruſſians, it might have been expected that Choczim would have immediately fallen; but prince Galitzin thought proper to retire, and to repaſs the Neiſter, not having ſufficient artillery along with him. Indeed, it appears that the Turkiſh cavalry had over-run the neighbouring country, burnt ſome ſmall towns, and deſtroyed ſome Ruſſian magazines.

While the Ruſſians and Turks were attacking each other in different places of their dominions on the ſide of Europe, the Tartar Aſiatic nations, in their different intereſts, extended the rage of war into another quarter of the globe. On the 9th of May a bloody engagement was fought between the Kalmucs and thoſe Tartars that inhabit the banks of the Cuban, lying between the Black and the Caſpian ſeas. This engagement continued from two in the afternoon till ſun-ſet; when the Kalmucs, by the aſſiſtance of ſome Ruſſian officers, with a detachment of dragoons and Coſſacs, and two pieces of cannon, obtained a complete victory, having made a great ſlaughter, as the Kalmucs gave no quarter. On the other hand, the European Tartars penetrated into the Ruſſian Ukraine on the ſide of Backmuth, where they made great devaſtations.

On the 13th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought, in which the Turks were defeated; the Ruſſians immediately inveſted Choczim, but the garriſon, being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and received great reinforcements from the Grand Vizir's camp, who was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide of the Danube. Several actions enſued, and prince Galitzin was again obliged to retreat and repaſs the Neiſter. It was computed that the ſiege of Choczim, and the actions conſequent to it, coſt the Ruſſians above 20,000 men. In the management of this war, the grand vizir acted with a degree of prudence, which it has been thought would have proved fatal to the deſigns of the Ruſſians, if the ſame conduct had been afterwards purſued. But the army of the Vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries: ſo that, in conſequence of their clamours, and the weakneſs of their councils that prevailed in the ſeraglio, he at length became a ſacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his ſucceſſor.

During theſe tranſactions, general Romanzow committed great devaſtations on the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt ſeveral towns and villages, defeated a Turkiſh detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars alſo committed great ravages in Poland, where they almoſt deſtroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, beſides doing much miſchief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Ruſſian army was again poſted on the banks of the Neiſter, and defended the paſſage of that river againſt the Turks, whoſe whole army, under the command of the new Vizir, was arrived on the oppoſite ſhore. Having laid three bridges over the Neiſter, the Turkiſh army, without any pretence of ſtratagem or deception, began to paſs the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked thoſe troops that had croſſed the river in the night, who conſequently could neither chooſe their ground, nor have time to extend or form themſelves properly where they were. Notwithſtanding theſe extreme diſadvantages the engagement was very ſevere, and continued from ſeven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obſtinacy, but were totally defeated, and obliged to repaſs the river with great loſs. It was computed that about 60,000 Turks croſſed the river, before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fix-

ed bayonets, who deſtroyed the flower of the Turkiſh cavalry. It is ſaid, that the loſs of the Turks, in this battle, amounted to 7000 men killed upon the ſpot, beſides wounded and priſoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the Vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the ſame nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to paſs the whole army over. On the 17th of September eight thouſand Janizaries and four thouſand regular cavalry, the flower of the Ottoman army, paſſed over with a large train of artillery, and the reſt of the army were in motion to follow, when a ſudden and extraordinary ſwell of the waters of the Neiſter totally deſtroyed the bridge. The Ruſſians loſt no time in making uſe of this great and unexpected advantage. A moſt deſperate engagement enſued; not only the field of battle, but the river over which ſome few hundreds of Turks made their eſcape by ſwimming, was for ſeveral miles covered with dead bodies. The Ruſſians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horſe-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, abandoned the ſtrong fortreſs of Choczim, with all its ſtores and numerous artillery, and retired towards the Danube. They were much exaſperated at the ill conduct of the Vizir; and it was computed that the Turks loſt 28,000 of the braveſt of their troops within little more than a fortnight; and that 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Peterſburgh covered with laurels.

The Ruſſians carried on the war with ſucceſs; they over-run the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmpt took poſſeſſion of the capital, Jaſſy, without oppoſition. And as the Greek natives of this province had always ſecretly favoured the Ruſſians, they now took this opportunity of their ſucceſs, and the abſence of the Turks, to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, acknowledged the empreſs of Ruſſia as their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army, near the river Larga, ſaid to have amounted to 80,000 men, and commanded by the Khan of the Crimea. But on the ſecond of Auguſt, the ſame Ruſſian general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new Grand Vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is ſaid that above 7000 Turks were killed on the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies; a vaſt quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of braſs cannon, and ſome thouſand carriages loaded with proviſions, fell into the hands of the Ruſſians.

But it was not only by land that the Ruſſians carried on the war ſucceſsfully againſt the Turks. The empreſs ſent a conſiderable fleet of men of war, Ruſſian built, into the Mediterranean, to act againſt the Turks on that ſide; and, by means of this fleet, under count Orlop, the Ruſſians ſpread ruin and deſolation through the open iſlands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceleſs coaſts of Greece and Aſia; the particulars of which will appear in the hiſtory of Turkey. It is obſervable, that in this attempt of the Ruſſians to act as a maritime power, they were greatly aſſiſted by England; but whether in this the Engliſh government was influenced by principles of ſound policy may very reaſonably be queſtioned.

The war between the Ruſſians and the Turks ſtill continued to be carried on by land, as well as by ſea, to the advantage of the former: but at length ſome attempts were made to negociate a peace between theſe great contending powers; hoſtilities were repeatedly ſuſpended, and afterwards renewed; but a peace was concluded

concluded on the 21ſt of July 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Ruſſians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all parts of the Ottoman empire.

Before the concluſion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburg. A Coſſac, whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, aſſumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor Peter the Third. He appeared in the province of Kaſan, and pretended, that he made his eſcape, through an extraordinary interpoſition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. His perſon is ſaid to have had a ſtriking reſemblance to that of the late emperor, a circumſtance which firſt induced him to engage in this enterprize. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with the able Ruſſian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country. But being totally defeated, and then betrayed by two of his confidents, he was brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, and there beheaded and quartered on the 21ſt of January, 1775.

The preſent empreſs of Ruſſia, notwithſtanding the very unfavourable circumſtances which attended her taking poſſeſſion of the government of that empire, has, from the commencement of her reign, filled her high ſtation with diſtinguiſhed renown. She has encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her ſubjects: though the extreme deſpotiſm of the Ruſſian government is a great impediment to the progreſs of the arts and ſciences, and to the real proſperity of the empire. Her imperial majeſty has effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police of her vaſt empire, and particularly in the courts of juſtice. She has aboliſhed the uſe of torture; and ſhe has alſo adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of priſons. The new code of laws for which ſhe hath given her inſtructions, is yet wanting to mitigate the rigour of deſpotiſm. One of the moſt remarkable tranſactions of her reign, is her eſtabliſhment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or inſults from belligerent powers. By the code, which her imperial majeſty has endeavoured to enforce, neutral ſhips are to enjoy a free navigation, from port to port, and on the coaſts of belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the ſubjects of ſuch powers are looked upon as free, on board ſuch neutral ſhips, except the goods ſtipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great Britain. It was in 1780, that her imperial majeſty invited the powers at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Thoſe who engaged were to make a common cauſe at ſea againſt any of the powers who ſhould violate, with reſpect to neutral nations, theſe principles of maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, the ſame year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the States-General.

Catharine II. empreſs of all the Ruſſias, princeſs of Anhalt Zerbſt, was born in 1729, and aſcended the throne in 1762, upon the depoſition and death of her huſband. She was married to that prince whilſt duke of Holſtein Gottorp, in 1745, by whom ſhe has iſſue Paul Petrowitz, great-duke of Ruſſia, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and by his preſent ducheſs, the princeſs of Wirtemberg, has had two ſons, Alexander and Conſtantine, and a daughter, Alexandrina-Pawleona.

SCOT-

SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

ACCORDING to the general plan I have laid down, I ſhall treat of the Iſlands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the deſcription of that kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, ſhall comprehend, under one head, thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſles of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney-iſlands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude; and form part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Dungſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtrait called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles, are numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] In all theſe iſlands the air is keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; and many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſles they ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſummer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other, and with the continent: the reſt of the year, they are almoſt inacceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, which are forty-ſix in number (though many of them are uninhabited) is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen, and it is the ſeat of a preſbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at midſummer, and their fiſhing-ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney iſlands, which are about thirty in number (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is thirty-three miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, nine. It contains nine pariſh churches, and four excellent harbours.

The iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and, in ſome places, almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſhes, and a caſtle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are, Lewis or Herries (for they both form but one iſland), which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornvay. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long, and, in ſome places, 30 broad; fruitful, and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleſhire, and contain together about 370 ſquare miles; but they have no towns

worthy notice. North Uiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fiſhing. I ſhall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides, which are at preſent of ſmall importance, either to the public, or the proprietors, though, probably, they may be of great conſequence to both, by the very improveable fiſheries upon their coaſt. I cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous iſle of Iona, once the ſeat and ſanctuary of weſtern learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is ſtill famous for its reliques of ſanctimonious antiquity. Some authors have been at great pains to de-deſcribe the iſland of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reaſon, that I can diſcover, but becauſe it is the remoteſt of all the north-weſt iſlands, and very difficult of acceſs; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are proteſtant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION. The iſlands of Shetland and Orkney were formerly ſubject to the Normans, who conqured them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William the Conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander king of Scots, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they became ſubject to the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage-portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The iſles of Shetland and Orkney form a ſtewartry, or ſhire, which ſends a member to parliament. At preſent the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; only, perhaps, their manners are more ſimple, and their minds leſs cultivated. Men of fortune have improved their eſtates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwellings, and other houſes, in a modern taſte; and are remarkable for the fineneſs of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheeſe, fiſh, ſea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geeſe: and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art of fermenting, ſo as to give it a vinous quality. In ſome of the northern iſlands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norſe language, is ſtill ſpoken. Their intercourſe with the Dutch, during the fiſhing ſeaſon, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney iſlands. The people are as expert as the Norwegians in ſeizing the neſts of ſea-fowls, which build in the moſt frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preſerves them from the diſeaſes incident to luxury. They cure the ſcurvy and the jaundice, to which they are ſubject, with the powder of ſnail-ſhells and ſcurvy-graſs, of which they have plenty. Their religion is proteſtant, according to the diſcipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil inſtitutions are the ſame with thoſe of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned as to the population of theſe three diviſions of iſlands. We have the moſt undoubted evidences of hiſtory, that about 400 years ago they were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides themſelves were often known to ſend 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At preſent, their numbers are ſaid not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders. They are ſimilar in perſons, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, and prejudices; with this difference, that the more poliſhed manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands: perhaps the deſcendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the ancient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the ancient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory;

and are the hiſtorians, or rather the genealogiſts, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dreſſed in the manner, but, as it is ſaid, more ſumptuouſly than the Engliſh minſtrels of former times*. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among theſe iſlanders ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors, and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connexions. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, butter-milk, and whey; and alſo mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their fore-fathers, in a romantic poetical turn, and the agility of both ſexes, in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author who ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of the *ſecond ſight*. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of ſome inſtances of this kind that have been brought by reputable authors, and to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. But, from the beſt information, no two of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and forms of theſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical or prophetic manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to propheſy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that amidſt many thouſands of predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe, being well atteſted, gave a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides, being the moſt weſterly iſlands planted by the Celts, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though plauſible, is not juſtified by experience. Many Celtic words, as well as cuſtoms, are there found; but the intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, Norwegians, and other northern nations, whoſe language is mixed with the Sclavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides is chiefly preſbyterian, as eſtabliſhed in the church of Scotland; but popery and ignorance ſtill prevail among ſome of the iſlanders, whilſt ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms ſeem to be almoſt grafted in their nature.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] The ſurface of theſe iſlands has undergone great alterations. Many of them were habitations of the Druids, whoſe temples are ſtill viſible; and thoſe temples were ſurrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees are diſcernible, as

* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient Engliſh Poetry.

are many veſtiges of buildings erected ſince the introduction of Chriſtianity, which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily ſhews, that if the ſoil of the northern and weſtern iſlands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots as are now cultivated produce corn and vegetables more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines; marl, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon theſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is ſtill bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that were reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTORIES.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. Their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which, when properly cured, are equal to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; their ſheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and their linen manufactures begin to make ſome progreſs among them. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render theſe iſlands, not only comfortable for their inhabitants, but ornamental and beneficial to their mother-country.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] In the neighbouring countries already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The coaſts of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe 20 years, ſeemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers. The latter furniſh the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburghers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] Theſe iſlands exhibit many proofs, in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts, and other buildings both ſacred and civil, that they were anciently more populous than they are now. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of thoſe works are not eaſily accounted for. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf-ſtone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, big enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endleſs to recount the various veſtiges of Druidical temples, ſome of which muſt have required equal labour with the famous Stonehenge near Saliſbury. Others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons, or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone, ſtanding upright: ſome have been ſculptured, and others have ſerved as ſepulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in theſe iſlands; and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able anti-

antiquary to deſcribe. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger ſize than the preſent. It is likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with theſe parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by 14 pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white poliſhed ſtones, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are ſtill more diſtinguiſhed than the Orkney or Shetland iſles for their remains of antiquity; and it would exceed the bounds allotted to this head, to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purpoſes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated iſle of Iona, called St. Columb-Kill. Not to enter into the hiſtory or origin of the religious edifices upon this iſland, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it ſeems to have ſerved as a ſanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy perſons, while Ireland, England, and Scotland were deſolated by barbariſm. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the ſanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of ſome Scotch, Iriſh, and Norwegian kings, with ſome Gaëlic inſcriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninſcribed. The ſteeple is large, the cuppola 21 feet ſquare, the doors and windows are curiouſly carved, and the altar is of the fineſt marble. Innumerable inſcriptions, referring to ancient cuſtoms and ceremonies, are diſcernible in this iſland; which gives countenance to the well-known obſervation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in theſe iſlands.

The iſlands belonging to Scotland contain likewiſe ſome natural curioſities peculiar to themſelves: the phaſeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven as is ſuppoſed, from the Weſt Indies, by the weſterly winds, which often force aſhore many curious ſhells and marine productions, highly eſteemed by naturaliſts. In the pariſh of Harn, a large piece of ſtag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce ſurpriſing phænomena, which the natives believe to be ſupernatural. But ſome of the moſt aſtoniſhing appearances in nature have remained undeſcribed, and, till lately, unobſerved, even by the natives. A diſcovery reſerved for the inquiſitive genius of ſir Joſeph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, ſays, "We were no ſooner arrived than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, the whole of that end of the iſland (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in colonnades upon a firm baſis of rock; above theſe the ſtratum which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, compoſed an ample pediment; ſometimes ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, and formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt into the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by men? mere models or play-things. Imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to thoſe of nature. Where is now the boaſt of the architect? regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs nature, is

is here found in perfection; though undeſcribed.—Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which ſurpaſſes deſcription: here they are bare to their very baſes, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible."——Sir Joſeph Banks particulariſes ſundry other appearances in this, and a neigbouring iſland, which is wholly compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum. In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to lie on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking object in this pictureſque ſcene is Fingal's Cave, which he deſcribes in the following manner:—" With our minds full of ſuch reflections, we proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giant's Cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till, in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers *. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow ſtalagtitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the fartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without; and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who alſo made a voyage to theſe iſlands in the ſame year, had a glance of Staffa, in his paſſage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by ſtormy weather from approaching it. " On the weſt," ſays he, " appears the beautiful groupe of the Treaſhuniſh iſles. Neareſt lies Staffa, a new Giant's Cauſeway, riſing amidſt the way, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; gloſſy and reſplendent, from the beams of the eaſtern ſun."—And in the iſle of Sky, a conſiderable way northward, he reſumes the ſubject: " We had in view a fine ſeries of genuine baſaltic columns, reſembling the Giant's Cauſeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, conſiſting of four, five, and ſix angles, but moſtly of five. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe, on the ſlope of a hill, is a tract of ſome roads entirely formed of the tops of ſeveral ſeries of columns, even and cloſe ſet, forming a reticulated ſurface of amazing beauty and curioſity. This is the moſt northern baſaltes I am acquainted with; the laſt of four in the Britiſh dominions, all running from ſouth to north, nearly in a meridian; the Giant's Cauſeway appears firſt: Staffa, &c. ſucceeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and finally, thoſe columns of Sky: the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vaſt links of this chain."

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY.] See Scotland.

* The dimenſions of the cave are thus given by ſir J. Banks.

	Feet		Feet
Length of the cave from the arch without	371	At the end - - -	70
From the pitch of the arch -	250	Height of an outſide pillar - -	39
Breadth of ditto at the mouth - -	53	Of one the N. W. corner - -	54
At the farther end - - -	20	Depth of water at the mouth - -	18
Height of the arch at the mouth -	117	At the bottom - - - - -	9

SCOTLAND.

Extent and Situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	54 and 59 North latitude.
Breadth	190		1 and 6 Weſt longitude.

Name.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are ſuppoſed to have been the original inhabitants of this country. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland. The word Scot being no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immenſe country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Eſcoſſe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh.

Boundaries.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 ſquare miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh ſeas, or more properly the Atlantic Ocean.

Divisions and subdivisions.] Scotland is divided into the countries ſouth of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires, are allotted to the ſouthern diviſions, and 15 to the northern; and thoſe counties are ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures, and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other ſubdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh	(429*)	Mid-Lothian — —	Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington	(121)	Eaſt-Lothian — —	Dunbar, Haddington, and North-Berwick.
3. Merſe, anciently Berwick †	(114)	The Merches, and Lauderdale — —	Dunſe, and Lauder.
4 Roxborough	(195)	Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, Eſkdale and Euſdale —	Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs.
5. Selkirk	(19)	Ettrick Foreſt	Selkirk.
6. Peebles	(42)	Tweedale	Peebles.
7. Lanerk	(388)	Clydeſdale	Glaſgow, W. long. 4-5. N. lat. 55-52. Hamilton, Lanerk, & Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries	(188)	Nithſdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annan.

* The numbers ſhew the proportion of militia as propoſed to be raiſed in each ſhire, when that ſcheme was laid before parliament in 1775.

† Berwick, on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

9. Wigtown

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
9. Wigtown	(190)	Galloway, Weſt Part	Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kircudbright	(100)	Galloway, Eaſt Part —	Kircudbright.
11. Air	(280)	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham — —	Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybold, Stewarton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton	(66)	Lenox — — —	Dumbarton.
13. Bute (34) and 14. Caithneſs	(105)	Bute, Arran, and Caithneſs — — —	Rothſay. Wick, N. lat. 58-40. and Thurſo.
15. Renfrew	(126)	Renfrew — —	Renfrew, Paiſley, Greenock, and Port-Glaſgow.
16. Stirling	(76)	Stirling — — —	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow	(80)	Weſt Lothian —	Linlithgow, Burroughſtonneſs, & Queensferry.
18. Argyle	(314)	Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with Part of the Weſtern Iſles, particularly Iſla, Jura, Mull, Wiſt, Terif, Col, and Liſmore	Inverary, Dunſtaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbeltown.
19. Perth	(570)	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount, Glenſhield, & Raynork	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardine	(109)	Merns — — —	Bervie, Stonhive and Kincardine.
21. Aberdeen	(551)	Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie	Old Aberdeen, W. lon. 1-40. N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Fraſerſburg, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverneſs	(282)	Aird, Strathglaſs, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmoriſon. — —	Inverneſs, Inverlochy, Fort Auguſtus, Boileau.
23. Nairne (27) and 24. Cromartie	(24)	Weſtern Part of Murray and Cromartie. —	Nairne, Cromartie.
25. Fife —	(387)	Fife — — —	St. Andrews, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Iſland, Dumferline, Dyſart, Anſtruther and Aberdour.
26. Forfar —	(326)	Forfar, Angus —	Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroth and Brechin.
27. Bamff —	(182)	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan	Bamff and Cullen.

28. Sutherland

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other ſubdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
28. Sutherland	(100)	Strathnaver and Sutherland — —	Strathy and Dornoch.
29. Clacmannan	(31)	Fife Part — —	Culroſs, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinroſs.
30. Kinroſs —	(23)		
31. Roſs —	(201)	Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Iſle of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald — —	Taine, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſamarkie, and New Kelſo.
32. Elgin —	(145)	Murray and Strathſpey	Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney —	(183)	Iſles of Orkney and Shetland — — —	Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59-45. Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat. 61.

In all thirty-three ſhires, which chooſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute and Caithneſs chooſing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinroſs.

The royal Boroughs which chooſe repreſentatives are,

Edinburgh — —	1	Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Stirling	1
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall, and Tayne —	1	Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton —	1
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and Forres — —	1	Haddington, Dunbar, North-Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	1
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore — —	1	Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk — —	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aberbrothe, and Brechin —	1	Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban, and Kircudbright	1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and St. Andrews —	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn —	1
Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem	1	Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Campbeltown, and Inverary —	1
Dyſert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland — —	1		

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, day-light, at Midſummer, laſts 18 hours and five minutes; which proportion of day to night is reverſed in winter. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes, that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent thoſe epidemic diſtempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, however, which are generally covered

with ſnow, the air, is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The ſoil in general is not ſo fertile as that of England; and in many places leſs fitted for agriculture than for paſture. At the ſame time, there are particular plains and vallies of the moſt luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, inceſſantly waſhed down from the mountains, and repoſited in theſe vallies, afford them a ſtrong vegetative nouriſhment: though experience has proved that hortulane productions do not come ſo ſoon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of ſoils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diverſified by an intermixture of natural objects. The inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the huſbandman, are particularly pleaſing to a traveller, and afford thoſe delightful ſituations for country-houſes, of which many of the Scottiſh nobility and gentry have availed themſelves. It is their ſituation as much as their magnificence, that occaſions the ſeats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where elſe, depends on the qualities of the ſoil. Water paſſing through a heavy ſoil is turbid and noxious, but filtrating through ſand or gravel, is clear, light, and ſalutary to the ſtomach. This laſt is commonly the caſe in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more ſouthern climates, in proportion as the land is worſe.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian and joins thoſe of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, riſes near the eaſtern coaſt, and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, ſometimes of great height, which, from their conical figure, have been diſtinguiſhed by the Celtic appellation of *Lawſ*.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largeſt river in Scotland is the Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm of the German ſea, to which it gives the name of Firth of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of Perth, and falls into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and running from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue themſelves at Aberdeen. The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and after many ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick, where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eaſtern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has its riſe in Annandale, runs north-weſt through the valley of that name, and, after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, oppoſite to the iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſort, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſhes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers go by the name of *Eſk*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greateſt improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in this part of Great Britain, was undertaken at a very conſiderable expence by a ſociety of public-ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde; by which a communication has been opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Lochneſs, Loch Au, and ſome others,

preſent us with ſuch pictureſque ſcenes as are ſcarcely equalled in any other country of Europe. Several of theſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſhes. The Scots ſometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the ſea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights: owing, as ſome think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters, with a ſtraight ſtalk and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Lochneſs is a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes: whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent of and unmixed with the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, the coaſts of Scotland are indented with large, bold, and navigable bays or arms of the ſea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtown bay; ſometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which ſeparates Scotland from England on the weſt; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt incontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian Foreſt, the remains of which are now thought to be Ettrick wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen. Several woods, however, ſtill remain; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and founderies; but lying at great diſtance from water-carriage, though the work ſucceeded in the execution, there was little encouragement to continue it. Fir trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland cannot now boaſt of its gold mines, yet it is certain, that it formerly afforded a quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor; and when that prince married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, and in the minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which ſince that time have never been reſumed. Some ſmall pieces of gold have been found in thoſe parts waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins ſtruck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver; but we know of no ſilver mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are export-

ed. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort are conſtructed of good materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood; and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulty for fuel; however, the taſte for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; alum mines have been found in Bamffſhire; cryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potters clay, and fullers earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made uſe of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and ſtones, than Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the advantage, in their founderies, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. The ſoil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even ſaid, that ſome tracts of the low countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are far leſs exhauſted than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſland; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants and manufacturers of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of induſtry, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks and marſhes, which, being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted. The fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where, as well as in Angus, the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per annum, are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve the farm. In ſuch places, the huſbandman barely exiſts upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows and planting as are common in England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, occupying more room than ſtone-incloſures, which, except in the Lothians, are generally low paltry walls, huddled up of looſe ſtones, without lime or mortar, and have a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſture. In the ſouthern counties, the fineſt garden fruits are ſaid to fall little ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; while many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath.

The ſea-coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe or duliſh, in great quantities, and other marine plants, which are eat for nouriſhment or pleaſure.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and countries already deſcribed; but the Scotch have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture: for ſocieties have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and the bill paſſed in 1786, bids fair to enable them to emulate the Dutch, in curing, as well as catching, their fiſh. In former times, the Scotch ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets than the Engliſh or Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domeſtic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and other animals for game, are here plentiful; alſo the grouſe and heath-cock: the capperkaily, and the ptarmacan, birds of an exquiſite flavour, but which are ſcarce even in the Highlands, and when diſcovered are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle upon the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and ſheep that are fed upon the mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into the country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on the ſouthern paſtures, have been reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. This trade is now on its decline, by the increaſe of manufacturers, whoſe demand for butcher's meat muſt leſſen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horſes, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent: but, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland were unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſo that about the time of the union, few horſes, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the Engliſh and foreign breeds, and ſuch pains have been taken for providing them with proper food and management, that ſucceſs has anſwered the moſt ſanguine expectations.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls. This calculation reſts merely upon vague conjectures, as no attempt has been made to ſupport even its probability. If we form an eſtimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that ſome public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their ſeveral pariſhes. The only records at preſent that can be appealed to, are thoſe of the army; and, by the beſt information, they make the number of ſoldiers, furniſhed by Scotland in the war in 1755, amount to 80,000 men. We are to obſerve, that above 60,000 of theſe were raiſed in the iſlands and Highlands, which form by far the leaſt populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, excluſive of the army, ſends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we conſult the moſt ancient and credible hiſtories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, muſt have been exceſſive, as it afforded ſo many thouſands to fall by the ſwords of the Engliſh, without any very ſenſible decreaſe of the inhabitants.

The

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother, as the head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive, that family pride, which is not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all their horrors of barbarity. Their family differences, eſpecially the Highlanders, familiarized them to blood and ſlaughter; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. Theſe paſſions did not live in the breaſts of the common people only, but were authorized and cheriſhed by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had ſeen the world, were converſant in the courts of Europe, maſters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and ſocial life. Their kings, except ſome who were endowed with extraordinary virtues, were conſidered in no other light than commanders of their army in time of war: for in peace their civil authority was ſo little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the moſt civilized part of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the ſovereign. Theſe ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave thoſe petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own eſtates; and they generally executed their haſty ſentences in four and twenty hours after the parties were apprehended. The pride which thoſe chieftains had of outvying each other in the numbers of their followers, created perpetual animoſities, which ſeldom or never ended without bloodſhed; ſo that the common people, whoſe beſt qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their maſter, and the aggrandiſement of his name, lived in a ſtate of continual hoſtility. The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the firſt chieftain who had the patriotiſm to attempt to reform his dependents, and to baniſh thoſe barbarous ideas. His example had been followed by others; and there can ſcarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of ſociety.

Scotch gentlemen, who formerly piqued themſelves upon their family, or the antiquity of their deſcent, were very diſagreeable members of ſociety; becauſe, forgetting all the virtues of their anceſtors, they imitated them only in their capricious vanity and revenge. Thoſe who go abroad, and endeavour by induſtry to raiſe the lowneſs of their circumſtances, excel in the civil, commercial, and military duties. There is a kind of ſimilarity in their perſonal characters, and by ſeeing one Scotchman who acquires a fortune abroad, you ſee the whole. They are in general hoſpitable, open, communicative, and charitable. They aſſimilate to the manners of the people with whom they live with more eaſe and freedom than the natives of moſt other countries; and they have a ſurpriſing facility in acquiring languages, particularly the French.

It remains perhaps a queſtion, whether that lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmoſt ſervice to many of its natives. Their literature, however ſlight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners; but at the ſame time it drained the nation of that order of men, who are the beſt fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

From

From what has been ſaid, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry are as far from being applicable to the preſent time, as the forms of a Roman ſenate are to that of a popiſh conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent ſo quick and ſo ſudden a tranſition of manners.

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon eſtates of 300l. a year and upwards, they differ little or nothing in their manners and ſtile of living, from their Engliſh neighbours of the like fortunes. The peaſantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their ſtations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their paſſions, to behave ſubmiſſively to their ſuperiors, and live within the bounds of the moſt rigid œconomy. Hence they ſave their money and their conſtitutions, and few inſtances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at preſent in Scotland. They ſeldom enter ſingly upon any daring enterprize; but when they act in concert, the ſecrecy, ſagacity, and reſolution, with which they carry on any deſperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the ſtrongeſt temptations ariſing from their poverty, is ſtill more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conſpiracies; witneſs that which put Porteous to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midſt of 20,000 people; and, though the agents were well known, and ſome of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found ſufficient to bring them to puniſhment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both ſexes, under a ſtill greater temptation, to the young Pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could ſcarcely be believed were it not well atteſted.

The lower claſs are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh to convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, they ſeem, for that very reaſon, to enjoy them more completely. One teſtimony there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. The gueſts pay according to their inclination or ability, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The inhabitants of thoſe parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein of poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of muſic. Love is generally the ſubject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of art, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtripped of that original ſimplicity, which, however irregular, is their moſt eſſential characteriſtic, ſo agreeable to the ear, and poſſeſſing ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively ſtrain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſehood invented by his countrymen, in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted in their church muſic, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland; but, were there no other evidence to confute this report, the original character of the muſic is ſufficient.

The common people retain the ſolemn decent manner of their anceſtors at burials.

When

When a relation dies in a town, the pariſh beadle is ſent round with a paſſing bell; but he ſtops at certain places, and with a ſlow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceaſed, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceeded by the magiſtrates and their officers, and the deceaſed is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall, with chairpoles, to the grave, where it is interred without farther ceremony than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without any burial ſervice. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs: the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen is the Goff, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength: it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball; the bat is of a taper conſtruction till it terminates in the part which ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded with lead, and faced with horn. The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the Mall, which was common in England, in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of Curling is, perhaps, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding ſummer and winter diverſions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, cricket excepted, which the gentlemen conſider as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place theſe two articles under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other; both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woollen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This ſtuff is of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call ſets, of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which, where ſkilfully managed, produce a pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt, the Highlander wears a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in ancient ſtatues: ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leathern belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a *phelig*, which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is, probably the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt, and this they term the *philebeg*, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings are likewiſe of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern

leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The woman's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the plaids and the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, eſpecially the Tuſcans, who were probably of Celtic original.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dreſs rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to government. Many efforts were made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful, for when the rebellion in 1745 broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time. The dreſs of the higher and middling ranks in the Low-country, differs little from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks is much the ſame in both kingdoms, but not ſo as to their neatneſs, and the cleanlineſs of the female ſervants.

The language of the Highlanders, eſpecially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, is radically Celtic. The Engliſh ſpoken by the Scots, notwithſtanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more ſouthern counties, is written in the ſame manner in both kingdoms. The pronunciation of a Scotchman is now improving, and with ſome does not differ from the pronounciation of a Londoner more than that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somerſetſhire, and ſome other counties.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are much the ſame in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden: the model of which was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland by the regent earl of Morton; and it was firſt uſed for the execution of himſelf.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottiſh hiſtorians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples of St. John the Apoſtle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scottiſh hiſtorians call Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptized. It was farther confirmed by emigration from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Diocleſian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves, from their own body, and who had no pre-eminence over their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and confirmed in Scotland, where it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome, in the fifth

century, who found means to introduce the ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at laſt prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkneſs which for many ages overſpread Europe; though its dependence upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of other countries.

The Culdees long retained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, ſo late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the 14th century, when they diſappeared. The oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner in the work of reformation to John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not fully ripe for this great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England was reſerved for the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and ſciences began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and inquiring people, but gave riſe to the Reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, whoſe imaginations had already ingroſſed theſe poſſeſſions, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which, through the fury of the mob, deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church-livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great alteration in their favour.

The great landholders left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding events rendered the preſbyterian clergy of great importance to the ſtate; and their revenues have been ſo much mended, that though no ſtipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work admit not of entering upon the doctrinal and œconomical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay, that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment at various periods proved ſo tyrannical, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes of life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of their dangerous powers over the laity. That relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting-ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. The power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at leaſt very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predeceſſors. They have been, ever ſince the Revolution, firm

adherents

adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Havover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes: but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns and bands, after the Geneva form. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip, but they freely uſe the Lord's Prayer. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty for the uſe of the proteſtant ſchools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain and the Weſtern Iſles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the ſupport of their widows and orphans. The number of pariſhes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than one miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſembly, which may be called the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. It conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from preſbyteries, royal burghs, and univerſities. A preſbytery, conſiſting of under twelve miniſters, ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder: if it contains between twelve and eighteen miniſters, it ſends three, and one ruling elder: if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters and two ruling elders: but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk-ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner. The commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are often perſons of the firſt quality of the country. The king preſides by his commiſſioner (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets annually, in May: but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confuſion; which the moderator, who is choſen by them to be ſpeaker, has not ſufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent preſbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſible by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate to the ſynods are preſbyteries, ſixty-nine in number, each conſiſting of ſeveral contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder, choſen half-yearly out of every kirk-ſeſſion, compoſe a preſbytery. Theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion; but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cogniſance of all eccleſiaſtical matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a vacancy, otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk-ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſter, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act much as church-wardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or ruling elder, is a place of great parochial truſt, and he is generally a lay perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. They are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion-table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching preſbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling-elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Scotland was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and of too much of the intolerance of popery: at preſent it is mild and gentle; and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines, are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. It is to be wiſhed, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters. Theſe are induſtrious to fix upon the abſurdities of former divines and viſionaries, and eccleſiaſtical ordinances and diſcipline, which were ſuppoſed to be incompatible with the nature of government. They maintain their own preachers; though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice.

A different ſet of diſſenters in Scotland conſiſts of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers, many papiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the Reſtoration, in 1660, to that of the Revolution, in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recogniſe king William's title. A Scotch epiſcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly. The decline of the nonjurors is far from having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland: the Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government. The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconſiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the iſlands: and though a violent oppoſition has lately been raiſed againſt them, they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhopricks, St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhopricks, which are Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roſs, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Iſles.

LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for 1400 years paſt. The weſtern parts and iſles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland, and many others ſince, whoſe bare names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnarus, ſtill extant, and of ſome others, who lived before, and at the time of the Norman invaſion, afford ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, moſt unqueſtionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he entered into league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, ſettling, and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſeminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard, and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin ſtyle

of

of Buchanan's Hiſtory is to this day the moſt claſſical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the fineſt compoſitions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbariſms of thoſe ſent them in anſwer. This has been conſidered as a proof that claſſical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery which, in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſton; and ſince, his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico-mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning has added the colouring of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the ſubject is little ſuſceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light through the world which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His Treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded, by the beſt judges in Europe, as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometrician no leſs famous diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the almoſt deſerted tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simſon, well known for his illuſtration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and his Conic Sections, are ſufficient to eſtabliſh the ſcientific reputation of his native country. This, however, does not reſt on the character of mathematicians and aſtronomers. The fine arts have been called ſiſters, to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connection between the ſciencs, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematics and phyſics, properly ſo called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of ſtudy to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Whytt, Cullen, &c. hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon. But of all literary purſuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Next to Locke's Eſſay on the Human Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind, that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe a moſt uſeful ſupplement to that eſſay. It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels.

UNIVERSITIES.] The Univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews *,

* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Profeſſors in

Greek,	Logic,	Mathematics,	Divinity,
Humanity,	Moral Philoſophy,	Civil Hiſtory,	Medicine.
Hebrew,	Natural Philoſophy,	Church Hiſtory,	

founded

founded in 1411.—Glaſgow †, 1454.—Aberdeen ‡, 1477.—And Edinburgh ‖, 1582.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally claims our firſt attention in this diviſion. Its caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed impregnable; and was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territories reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle, and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the high-ſtreet, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides, north and ſouth. In former times the town was ſurrounded by water, except towards the eaſt; ſo that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the uſe of a family; ſo that the high-ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well-paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides, except where it joins to the city. The inconveniences ariſing from this crowded population being ſo very apparent, the modern houſes are generally built in the Engliſh taſte, of a moderate height, and accommodated to the uſe of a ſingle family. This improvement particularly prevails in the new town. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the river Forth, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of forty or fifty miles, which border upon the Highlands. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, a large magazine of arms and ammunition, and contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace of Holyrood-houſe. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and

† Glaſcow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Profeſſors in

Greek,	Logic,	Practical Aſtronomy,	Medicine,
Humanity,	Moral Philoſophy,	Hiſtory,	Anatomy.
Hebrew,	Natural Philoſophy,	Divinity,	
Oriental Languages,	Mathematics,	Civil and Scotch Law,	

‡ Aberdeen has properly two colleges, viz. King's College, and Mariſchal College; King's College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

Greek,	Oriental Languages,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Humanity,	Philoſophy,	Civil Law,	

Mariſchal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

Greek,	Moral Philoſophy and	Natural Philoſophy,	Divinity,
Oriental Languages,	Logic,	Mathematics,	Medicine.

‖ Edinburgh has a Patron, Principal, and Profeſſors in

Divinity,	Natural Philoſophy,	Law of Nature and Nations,	Inſt. of Phyſic and Medicine,
Church Hiſtory,	Mathematics,	Rhetoric, and Belles Lettres,	Practice of Medicine,
Greek,	Civil Hiſtory,	Botany,	Chemiſtry,
Humanity,	Natural Hiſtory,	Materia Medica,	Anatomy,
Hebrew,	Scotch Law,		Midwifery.
Logic,	Civil Law,		
Moral Philoſophy,			

under the direction of ſir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains good apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have adorned the neighbourhood of this palace, which is ſituate at the bottom of bleak crags and bare mountains. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of ſtone galleries ſupported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years ago which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a good ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and is, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens, not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the public edifices of Edinburgh is the college, which claims the privileges of an univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days. What is of more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented; and a muſeum belonging to it was given by ſir Andrew Balfour, a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural, and ſome literary curioſities. The magiſtrates of Edinburgh intend to erect a new and elegant ſtructure upon the preſent ſituation, as ſoon as a fund can be formed adequate to the expence.

The Parliament-ſquare, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of the city; it is formed into a quadrangle, part of which conſiſts of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is ſaid to be better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord ordinary, preſides by rotation; in a room near it, ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scotch hiſtory, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining to the library is the room where the public records are kept; but both, though lofty in the roof, are dark

dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now carrying on for lodging the books and papers in rooms better ſuited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits. It is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deſerves particular attention. This pavement has been lately much improved.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the exchange, public offices, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almoſt completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the preſent age. The ſtreets and ſquares are laid out with regularity, and the houſes are built of ſtone, in an elegant taſte, with all the conveniences that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and commodious. The fronts of ſome are ſuperbly finiſhed, diſplaying at the ſame time the judgment of the builder, and the public ſpirit of the proprietors.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a ſheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the aſcent towards the new town covered with pleaſure gardens, ſhrubberies, &c. But this elegant deſign has not yet taken place. At the weſt, or upper end of this vale, the caſtle, a ſolid rock, not leſs than twenty ſtories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eaſtern extremity is bounded by a ſtriking object of art, a lofty bridge *, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the deſcent on each ſide the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. I am the more particular in deſcribing this place, that the reader may form ſome idea of its pleaſant ſituation, ſtanding on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each ſide, in the heart of a rich country; the view ſouthward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic caſtle, and diſtant hills riſing to an amazing height; while the proſpect northward gives full ſcope to the eye, pleaſes the imagination, and fills the mind with ſuch ideas as the works of nature alone can inſpire.

This city may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and a wall which encloſes it on the ſouth ſide, of a very modern fabric but in the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a playhouſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, aſſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted. In the new town are ſeveral handſome and convenient hotels, and the coffeehouſes and taverns in the old town are much improved.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provoſt, four baillies, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common-council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon, and here are 14; viz. ſurgeons, goldſmiths, ſkinners furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provoſt is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his ma-

* A bridge has been lately erected towards the ſouth, which not only connects the buildings in that quarter with the old and new towns, but admits of an eaſy acceſs to the country. This South Bridge forms a moſt elegant ſtreet, with magnificent buildings on each ſide, and is directly oppoſite to that over the North Loch, and will be productive of many advantages, and afford a great increaſe of revenue to the city of Edinburgh.

jeſty's dominions, but at Edinburgh: they ſerve for the city watch, and patrole the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes 16 companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burden. Its product has been ſufficient to defray the expence of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guiſe, againſt the Engliſh, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are increaſing; particularly, the earl of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, counted one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440 by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the ſecond city of Scotland, and conſidering its ſize, the firſt perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtraight, well paved, and conſequently clean. The houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are ſupported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in a good ſtyle of architecture; and the cathedral is a Gothic building. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a maſterly fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo or Kentigern, who was biſhop of Glaſgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town houſe is a loſty building, and has noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity is eſteemed the beſt built of any in Scotland, is at preſent in a thriving ſtate, and its buildings will be much improved and extended in conſequence of the liberal donations bequeathed by the late Dr. Hunter. In this city are ſeveral well-endowed hoſpitals; it is well ſupplied with inns; and, near the moſt populous part of the town, where the traders aſſemble, is a hotel, tavern, and ſpacious coffee-houſe, named the *Tontine*, ſupported by ſubſcription. It is, perhaps, equal to any thing of the kind, and well calculated for the accommodation of ſtrangers and the inhabitants of this commercial city. They have lately built a handſome bridge acroſs the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize that and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city carrying on by the inhabitants, who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their commerce, both foreign and internal, which they carry on with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven

churches, and eight or ten meeting-houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. Its inhabitants have been eſtimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen is the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen; the former is the ſhire-town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour: in it are three churches, and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well-frequented univerſity, and above 25,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other: it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of theſe places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, though independent of each other. There is, at preſent, a proſpect of their being united.

Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic: is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great Britain, called the Carſe of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 20,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; is a town of conſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to foreign parts; and has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the ſame county of Angus: the trade of the firſt has declined, but the manufactures of the other two are in an improving ſtate.

It may be neceſſary again to mention, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to the population of Scotland. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 ſouls, which is the common computation, to which I all along conform myſelf: but the influx of people, and the increaſe of matrimony in proportion to that of property, muſt create great alterations for the better, and few for the worſe, becauſe the inhabitants who are diſpoſed to induſtry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reaſon why a particular deſcription of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paiſley, Stirling, and about 50 other burghs and towns of very conſiderable trade in Scotland, is omitted.

The ancient Scots valued themſelves upon truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out 48 hours, if beſieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the Weſt Highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood; as are Fort George and Fort Auguſtus, in the north and north-weſt: but none of them can be conſidered as defences againſt a foreign enemy.

It is needleſs to give a deſcription of the edifices that, within the courſe of this and the laſt century, have been erected by private perſons in Scotland, becauſe they are ſo numerous. It is ſufficient to ſay, that many of them are equal to ſome of the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries: and the reader's ſurpriſe at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture than that of the nobility and gentry in Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, where it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expence. This may likewiſe account for the ſtupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices which anciently abounded in Scotland: but at the time of the Reformation they were moſtly demoliſhed, by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in theſe practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exaſperated at the long ſuffering they had endured from the popiſh party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland, have furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtella, their pretentures or walls reaching acroſs the iſland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that without ſome freſh diſcoveries, an account of them could afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The courſe of the Roman wall (or, as it is called by the country people, *Graham's dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it) between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible, as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood *. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. It is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stirlingſhire, but has been lately barbarouſly demoliſhed by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that, upon the whole, it was one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mounts of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni pacis: which ſerve to evince that there was a kind of compromiſe between the Romans and Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire farther to the northwards. Innumerable are the coins, urns, utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland; ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of the Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are diſcernible in ſeveral northern counties, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some houſes of ſtupendous fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire, but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh,

* Near the weſtern extremity of this wall, at Duntocher, in Dumbartonſhire, a countryman, in digging a trench upon the declivity of a hill, upon which are ſeen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up ſeveral uncommon tiles, which exciting the curioſity of the peaſantry in that neigbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire ſubterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart load of theſe materials. A gentleman found means, upon the ſecond day, to ſtop all farther proceedings, in hopes that ſome public-ſpirited perſons would, by taking off the ſurface, explore the whole without demoliſhing it. The tiles are of ſeven different ſizes; the ſmalleſt being ſeven, and the largeſt twenty-one inches ſquare. They are from two to three inches in thickneſs, of a reddiſh colour, and in a perfectly ſound condition. The leſſer ones compoſe ſeveral rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of paſſages about eighteen inches ſquare: and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, ſerve as a roof to ſupport the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is ſurrounded by a ſubterraneous wall of hewn ſtone.

does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built about the fifth century to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts. Two Pictiſh monuments, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus: both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without a ſtair-caſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn freeſtone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top *.

The veſtiges of erections by the ancient Scots are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their hiſtory. That people had a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with basreliefs of men on horſeback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, now inexplicable. Many other hiſtorical monuments of the Scots have been diſcovered, and the obſcurity of their ſculptures has encouraged a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures. It would be unpardonable, not to mention the ſtone near the town of Forres, or Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the others in magnitude, "and is (ſays Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm a few years before the Norman invaſion.

At Sandwick, in Roſs-ſhire, is a ſplendid ancient obeliſk, ſurrounded at the baſe with large, well cut flag ſtones, formed like ſteps. Both ſides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well finiſhed carved work. The one face preſents a ſumptuous croſs, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and ſome uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central diviſion, on the reverſe, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals. The remains of the cathedral of Elgin diſplay much grandeur and dignity. The weſt door is highly ornamented, there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice exhibits very elaborate workmanſhip.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles may be mentioned Kildrumy caſtle in the north of Scotland, formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often uſed as an aſylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverurie caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the earl-mareſchals of Scotland, is alſo a large and lofty pile, ſituated on the ſteep bank of the river; two high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying ſtate, give the caſtle an air of grandeur and antiquity. Rows of venerable trees, incloſing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntley are the ruins of Huntley caſtle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large ſquare towers, which had defended the gateway.

* If theſe columns, which ſtand in the ancient dominions of the Picts, be really the work of that nation, their architects muſt have been equal to any at that time in Europe.

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The caſtle ſeems to be very old, and great part of it is demoliſhed; but there is a maſſy building of a more modern date, in which ſome of the apartments, and their curious cielings, are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. They are painted with a great variety of ſubjects, in ſmall diviſions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scotch antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the Druidical monuments in South-Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be Britiſh; it exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip with the keel uppermoſt. The common people call it Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. It appears to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one inſtance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunſtaffage caſtle, is another, yielding vaſt quantities of pummices or ſcoria of different kinds, many of which are of the ſame ſpecies with thoſe of the volcanic Iceland. Among other natural curioſities, mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like cryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea-ſhells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Roſs-ſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains, in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water oozing through a ſpungy porous rock at the top, quickly conſolidates after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have their deſcriptions and hiſtories, but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar. Some caverns in Fifeſhire are probably natural, and of extraordinary dimenſions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In theſe reſpects Scotland has, for ſome years paſt, been in a very improving ſtate. Without entering into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on an Eaſt and Weſt-India trade, was founded upon true principals of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterprize. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after receiving the higheſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened. The diſguſt conceived by the nation on that account made commerce languiſh, until Mr. Pelham, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, diſcovered the true value of Scotland. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragement granted by the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter, purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan; and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that Great Britain was ever engaged in. Let it be remarked, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that the Scots have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament. This is manifeſt from the extenſive trade they lately carried on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt Indies, and with all the nations to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe 40 years paſt has been

very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange they import rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the Weſt-Indies. The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſts, for they have a great concern in the whale fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen. Their other fiſheries are increaſing, their cured fiſh being preferred by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The buſſes or veſſels employed in the great herring fiſhery on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-weſt parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring iſlands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyleſhire, facing the north of Ireland, where ſometimes 300 veſſels have been aſſembled. They clear out the 12th of September, and muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are alſo under certain regulations reſpecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being calculated to promote the beſt of national purpoſes, its ſtrength and its commerce. Notwithſtanding the political exiſtence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of our ſeamen, this noble inſtitution ſtill labours under many difficulties.

To encourage this fiſhery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament, but whether from the inſufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpoſe, or any other cauſe, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only ſinking their fortunes, but alſo borrowing to the utmoſt limits of their credit. The bounty has ſince been reduced from 50, to 30s, with the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the ſtrength of theſe promiſes they have again embarked in the fiſhery; and it is to be wiſhed, that no conſideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement ſo requiſite to place this fiſhery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of theſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingſhire. Their linen manufactory is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal to any in the world; it has been ſaid, ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Oſnaburgs, inckle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000l. excluſive of their home conſumption: and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are making very promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. It is true, that they cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among their late improvements, we are not to forget the progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ores of their country. The coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtones to account, by their contract for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the late war. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts of

Scotland.

Scotland. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce. With regard to other manufactures, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. There are undoubtedly ſome diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment for England and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the union, which removed the ſeat of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots will probably continue to be diſtreſſed for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil may, perhaps, be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England, for the ſupport of government, and for carrying on the manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland have, in ſome meaſure, abandoned the uſe of French brandy and claret, for port and rum produced in the Britiſh plantations; their own malt-liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as thoſe in England; and it is ſaid, that they have lately exported large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the Plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſix-pence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her ſon James VI. when the reſort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the Engliſh court, occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling ſell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which was double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words *bas piece*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation made of the Scotch ſhilling holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but money of account. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order, inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making a league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected, and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſit*. "None ſhall ſafely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient conſtitution of government in Scotland has been applauded, as excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution, which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming

or

or exerciſing a deſpotic authority; but the Scottiſh conſtitution of government was too much of the ariſtocratic kind, to afford the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to oppreſs their tenants and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz. "In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, That I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance, that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, In all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may ſhew mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the intervals of parliament; it had a controuling power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature: it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even intruſted with the executive power. And ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was cotemporary with, and ſon-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the acts ſtill extant; in ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince, who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt over grown of his ſubjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhewed a direſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by their clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. They were choſen from the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance, choſe eight peers, and the peers eight biſhops; and theſe ſixteen choſe eight barons (or knights of the ſhire), and eight commiſſioners for burghs; to whom were added eight great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; ſo that, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged, that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles: and though Charles I. endeavoured to form theſe lords of the articles into

into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how well they underſtood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown, which they conferred on the prince and princes of Orange. This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the Reſtoration. It is aſked, Why did they ſubmit to that tyranny? The anſwer is, In order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtroy, by uniting them with England; they therefore choſe to ſubmit to a temporary evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe, for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had a deliberate and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the Reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, and the reſcue of a great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the ſtates aſſembled for the purpoſes of taxation only. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great, were the lord high-chancellor, high-treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary; the four leſſer were, the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice-clerk. The offices of privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice-clerk ſtill continue; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat officially in the Scotch parliament.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The offices of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight marſhal. The office of chancellor in Scotland differed little from that in England; the ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord-regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative, by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the numbers upon a diviſion. The lord-advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts for breaches of the peace; and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath intereſt. Two ſolicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, when the juſtice-general is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other officers both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct, or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex fæcialium, or grand herald of

Scotland, is ſtill in being; and it was formerly a place of great ſplendor and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in a greater purity than in any other country, except Germany. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy-council of Scotland before the Revolution, had or aſſumed inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great-Britain; and the civil and criminal cauſes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by Jame V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took the names of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain. This court conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote, but have no ſalaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all matters of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been matter of ſurpriſe, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh Houſe of Lords, to which an appeal lies. The ſupreme criminal judge was named the Juſticiar, and the court of Juſticiary ſucceeded to his power.

The juſtice court is the higheſt tribunal in Scotland; but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord juſtice general, removeable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the juſtice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. The verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but without the neceſſity of their being unanimous. Twice in the year, during the ſpring and harveſt vacations, the judges of this court hold circuits in certain boroughs appointed by ſtatute.

Beſides theſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame power, authority, and juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters competent to the court of exchequer of England, are likewiſe competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exerciſe certain powers which formerly belonged to the treaſury, and are ſtill veſted in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a ſupreme court, in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction; and the lord high-admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and juſtice-general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame; and upon freſh waters and navigable rivers, below the firſt bridge, or within flood-mark; ſo that nothing competent to his juriſdiction can be meddled with, in the firſt inſtance, but by the lord high-admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences paſſed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the ſeſſion, or any other judicatory, unleſs in caſes not maritime. Cauſes are tried in this court by the civil law, which, in ſuch caſes is likewiſe the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wiſby, and the Hanſe towns, and other maritime practices and deciſions common upon the continent.

continent. The place of lord admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the ſalary is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of diſtinction, with conſiderable perquiſites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which anſwers to the Engliſh inns of court, may be called the ſeminary of Scotch lawyers. They are an orderly court, and their forms require great preciſion and examination to qualify its candidates for admiſſion. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or attorneys, who are named writers to the ſignet, becauſe they alone can ſubſcribe the writs that paſs the ſignet; they likewiſe have a bye government for their own regulation.

The government of the counties of Scotland was formerly veſted in ſheriffs and ſtewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commiſſaries, juſtices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly ſheriffdoms were generally hereditable; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all veſted in the crown; it being enacted, that all high-ſheriffs, or ſtewards, ſhall, in future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors. In regard to the ſheriff-deputes and ſteward deputes, it is enacted, that there ſhall only be one in each county, or ſtewartry, who muſt be an advocate, of three years ſtanding at leaſt. For the ſpace of ſeven years, theſe deputies are to be nominated by the king, with ſuch continuance as his majeſty ſhall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices for life, unleſs guilty of ſome offence. Some other regulations have been likewiſe introduced, highly for the credit of the ſheriff courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the ſtewards had much the ſame power in them, as the ſheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal juriſdiction veſted in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but theſe were ſo dangerous, and ſo extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now diſſolved by an act of parliament.

Baron courts belong to every perſon who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to cauſes not exceeding forty ſhillings ſterling; and in criminal caſes, to petty actions of aſſault and battery; but the puniſhment is not to exceed twenty ſhillings ſterling, or ſetting the delinquent in the ſtocks for three hours, in the day-time. Theſe courts were, in former days, inveſted with the power of life and death, which they have now loſt.

The courts of commiſſaries in Scotland anſwer to thoſe of the Engliſh dioceſan chancellors, the higheſt of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and teſtaments; the right of patronage to eccleſiaſtical benefices, tythes, divorces, and cauſes of that nature; but in other parts of the kingdom, there ſits but one judge on theſe cauſes.

According to the preſent inſtitution, juſtices of the peace in Scotland exerciſe the ſame powers as thoſe in England. In former times their office, though of old ſtanding, was inſignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invaſion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to regiſter the depoſitions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office is now but ſeldom exerciſed.

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is plain that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The latter allege, indeed,

that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, the oldeſt law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. The Scots, on the other hand, ſay, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are extenſive, and before the Union they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners and merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufactures; to the curing of ſalmon, and herrings; and to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation: they fix the ſtaple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conſervator is nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary: ſo that the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. This is a very ſingular inſtitution, and proves the attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and conſtitution of Scotland, as they exiſt at preſent, in their general view. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch practices; and their acts of ſederunt anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeaſances; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries; and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. One obſervation proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch conſtitutions, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill: here all national affairs were tranſacted, judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folc mote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

HISTORY.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were the firſt inhabitants; the Picts were Britons, forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, above fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar; and who ſettling in Scotland were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in armies on the continent, and, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth appears to have been inhabited by Saxons, and by the Britons who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people, in proceſs of time, were ſubdued by the Scots.

It is unneceſſary to inveſtigate the conſtitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is ſufficient to obſerve that they ſeem to have been as forward as any of their ſouthern neighbours in the arts of war and government. It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory

tory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general does honour to the valour of both nations; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble hiſtorian with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward, to the province of the Horeſti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the 21ſt in a lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their reſiſtance obliged Agricola, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and Forth; and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Chriſtian æra by Donald I. The Picts, who were the deſcendants of the ancient Britons, had at that time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scotch monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe: but it broke out with more luſtre than ever under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief: and, in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up by the ſea, or periſh by the ſwords of the barbarians; for ſo all nations were called who were not Roman, or under the Roman protection. Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldeſt hiſtories, even thoſe the leaſt favourable to monarchy, that the ſucceſſion to the crown of Scotland ſtill continued in the family of Fergus, but generally devolved on collaterals; till the inconveniencies of that mode of ſucceſſion were ſo much felt, that it fell into diſuſe, and was at laſt ſettled in the deſcending line.

About the year 726, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince ſo much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which long continued inviolate. No fact of equal antiquity is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the dominions of that great conqueror. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland, as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them; but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination: for he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their name, and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the Eaſt; who, being maſters of the ſea, haraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions.

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The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh; for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs, who then governed England, were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots, who aſſerted their freedom and independency againſt foreign invaders and domeſtic uſurpers. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words, which ſignify a *large head*, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſecond from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakſpeare, who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory previous to his mounting the throne in 1057. He was a wiſe and magnanimous prince, not inferior to his contemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſurnamed the Outlaw, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter Maud was married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwic, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. Edgar, the ſon of Malcolm III. a wiſe and valiant prince, aſſumed the government; he was ſucceeded by Alexander I. and upon his death, David I. mounted the throne. Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, viz. the glories of this reign, it appears, that David was one of the greateſt princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this iſland. His actions and the reſources he found in his own courage, prove him to have been a real hero. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, we are to conſider, that by them only he could hope to civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws drawn up by him do his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon Malcolm IV. and he by William, ſurnamed from his valour, the Lion. William's ſon Alexander II. was ſucceeded in 1249 by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders' daughter; David, and Margaret who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom king William's poſterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have entered into this detail, becauſe it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandſon to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce, grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the

the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which were not then ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed interregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England, the moſt ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived ſome obſolete claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him: but afterwards dethroned, and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this, Edward uſed many bloody endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own; but though they were often defeated, and he for a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt on every favourable opportunity. Thoſe who were ſo zealouſly attached to the independence of their country, as to be reſolved to hazard every thing, were but few, compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame; and for ſome time they were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted of a formal ſurrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England; and ſent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him; and moſt barbarouſly carried off, or deſtroyed, all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidences of their independency; and particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter-Abbey.

Theſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived the deſire of freedom; and Edward, finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, affected to treat them on the foot of equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he aimed at the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen, for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body: Edward was obliged to divide his army, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with great loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh, but he was betrayed and ungenerouſly put to death at London as a traitor. Edward died himſelf, as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating

ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed, according to the beſt hiſtorians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his four brothers, he aſſumed the crown; but was defeated by the Engliſh (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Weſtern Iſles of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas eſpecially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were ſent priſoners to England, where his beſt friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death, yet ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit, that he recovered all Scotland, except the caſtle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who at laſt raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 100,000 men, though this has been ſuppoſed an exaggeration: however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all veterans, bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny. Edward led his hoſt towards Stirling, then beſieged by Bruce; who had choſen, with the greateſt judgement, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton; thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned the beſt knight in Scotland; his nephew Randolf, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories recorded in hiſtory. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men, while their own exceeded not 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots: and Edward himſelf, with a few followers, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314*.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered were they by religious conſiderations, that, in a letter they ſent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol for debaſing the crown by holding it of England; and that they would do the ſame by Robert, if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, made an advantageous peace with England; and died, in 1328, with the reputation of being the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abi-

* That the Scots of thoſe days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes, may be ſeen from a ſcoffing ballad, made on this victory, which begins as follows:

Maydens of England ſore may ye mourn,
For zour lemmons zou have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low!

What ho! ween'd the king of England,
So ſoon to have won all Scotland.
With a rumby low!

lities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother-in-law and enemy Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as ambitious as any of his predeceſſors of making the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David, however, had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham: and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace without iſſue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who ſeems to have had an intention to ſeize the crown. Robert, on this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France; but he was ungenerouſly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and after ſuffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James, the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for government, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined, therefore, to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns: but the execution of theſe deſigns coſt him his life, he being murdered in his bed by ſome of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority ſucceeded; but James II. promiſed to equal the greateſt of his anceſtors in warlike and civil virtues, when he was killed by the accidental burſting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was beſieging the caſtle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the Engliſh. Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are viſible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was cloſed by a rebellion of his ſubjects, during which he was ſlain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His ſon, James IV. was the moſt accompliſhed prince of the age: he was naturally generous and brave; loved magnificence, delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected commerce, which greatly increaſed in his reign; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII's daughter, was ſplendid and reſpectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family-diſtemper, a predilection for the French, in whoſe cauſe he was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the Engliſh, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his ſon, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the firſt a daughter of the king of France, and the latter of the houſe of Guiſe. He inſtituted the court of ſeſſion, enacted many ſalutary laws, and greatly promoted the induſtry of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was ſo equally poiſed between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendſhip was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent preſents. But James took little ſhare in foreign

affairs; he ſeemed rather to imitate his predeceſſors in their attempts to hunble the nobility; and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the inſtigation of the clergy, to a religious perſecution, though it is generally believed that, had he lived longer, he would have ſeized all the church-revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having ſlighted ſome friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this ſhort expedition, the Engliſh army retired to Berwick. Upon its retreat, James ſent ten thouſand men to the weſtern borders, who entered England at Solway Frith; and he followed at a ſmall diſtance, ready to join them. Soon after, he gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commiſſion, and conferring the command on his favourite, Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman. The army were ſo much diſguſted with this alteration, that they were ready to diſband, when a ſmall body of Engliſh appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic ſeized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, ſuppoſing themſelves to be attacked by the whole Engliſh army. The Engliſh cavalry, ſeeing them fly with ſuch precipitation, cloſely purſued, and ſlew great numbers, taking priſoners ſeven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred ſoldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This diſaſter ſo much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illneſs, of which he died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and ſucceſſor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her imprudence, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient to ſay, that during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her couſin-german, lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death hath given riſe to much controverſy. The conſequence of her huſband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was conſidered as his murderer, was an inſurrection of her ſubjects, from whom ſhe fled into England, where ſhe was detained a priſoner for eighteen years; and, afterwards, on motives of ſtate policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth, in 1587, in the forty-ſixth year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhewing conſiderable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, deſtroyed the independency, as it impoveriſhed the people of Scotland; for the ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for bread in other countries. James, after a ſplendid, but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1635, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his deſpotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottiſh and his Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms againſt him: and, indeed, it was in Scotland that the ſword was firſt drawn againſt Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himſelf into the power of the Scottiſh army; they at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up to the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made ſeveral unſucceſsful attempts to reſtore his ſon, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter, 1651, after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the commonwealth of England, and the protector, gave law to Scotland.

The ſtate of parties in England, at the acceſſion of queen Anne, was ſuch, that the Whigs once more had recourſe to the Scots, and offered them their own

terms, if they would agree to the Union as it now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would liſten to the propoſals; but at laſt, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; ſince which event, the hiſtory of Scotland becomes the ſame with that of England.

ENGLAND.

Extent and Situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	380	between	50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth	300		2 East and 6-20 Weſt longitude.

Climate and boundaries. THE longeſt day, in the northern parts, contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt in the ſouthern, near 8 hours. It is bounded, on the North, by that part of the iſland called Scotland; on the Eaſt, by the German Ocean; on the Weſt, by St. George's Channel; and on the South, by the Engliſh Channel, which parts it from France, and contains 49,450 ſquare miles.

The ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather; ſo that the inhabitants on part of the ſea-coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the ſame degree of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occaſioned by refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

Name and divisions, ancient and modern. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*: ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which poured a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the time of the Romans, the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies: other antiquaries, however, do not agree to this etymology. The weſtern tract of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of ſtrangers*, becauſe inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were ſtrangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom;
2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, Wales included; and,
3. Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To theſe diviſions ſome add the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and eſtabliſhed themſelves there, in the year 582, their leaders appropriated, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the moſt inſtrumental in acquiring; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political confederacy, conſiſt-

ing of ſeven kingdoms. In time of war, a chief was choſen from the ſeven kings by public conſent; ſo that the Saxon heptarchy nearly reſembled the conſtitution of Greece during the heroic ages.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtyled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent — —	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suſſex — —	Chicheſter
	Surry — —	Southwark.
3. Eaſt Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk — —	Norwich
	Suffolk — —	Bury St. Edmund's
	Cambridge — —	Cambridge
	With the Iſle of Ely	Ely.
4. Weſt-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060.	Cornwall — —	Launceſton
	Devon — —	Exeter
	Dorſet — —	Dorcheſter
	Somerſet — —	Bath
	Wilts — —	Saliſbury
	Hants — —	Wincheſter
	Berks — —	Abingdon.
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792.	Lancaſter —	Lancaſter
	York — —	York
	Durham — —	Durham
	Cumberland — —	Carliſle
	Weſtmoreland —	Appleby
	Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh —	Newcaſtle.
6. Eaſt-Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Eſſex — —	London.
	Middleſex, and part of Hertford — —	
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	The other part of Hertford	Hertford
	Glouceſter — —	Glouceſter
	Hereford — —	Hereford.
	Worceſter — —	Worceſter
	Warwick — —	Warwick
	Leiceſter — —	Leiceſter
	Rutland — —	Oakham
	Northampton —	Northampton
	Lincoln — —	Lincoln
	Huntingdon —	Huntingdon
	Bedford — —	Bedford
	Buckingham —	Ayleſbury
	Oxford — —	Oxford
	Stafford — —	Stafford
	Derby — —	Derby
	Salop — —	Shrewſbury
	Nottingham —	Nottingham
	Cheſter — —	Cheſter.

I have

I have beeen the more ſolicitous to preſerve theſe diviſions, as they account for different local cuſtoms, and many very eſſential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their riſe from different Saxon inſtitutions. Since the Norman invaſion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, except Middleſex and Cheſhire, are comprehended in ſix circuits, or annual progreſſes of the judges, for adminiſtering juſtice to the ſubjects who are at a diſtance from the capital. Theſe circuits are:

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Eſſex	Chelmsford, Colcheſter, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford	Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Biſhop's-Stortford, Berkhamſted, Hemſted, and Barnet.
	Kent	Maidſtone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rocheſter, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feverſham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton.
	Surry	Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wandſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking.
	Suſſex	Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Eaſt-Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks	Ayleſbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stoney Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Bedford	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunſtable, Luton, Biggleſwade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmancheſter, St. Neot's, Ramſey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royſton, and Wiſbich.
	Suffolk	Bury, Ipſwich, Sudbury, Leoſtoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Haleſworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Eaſtbergholt.
	Norfolk	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
3. Oxford Circuit.	Oxon	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorcheſter, Woodſtock, and Tame.
	Berks	Abingdon. Windſor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter, Tewkſbury, Cirenceſter, part of Briſtol, Campden, Stow, Berkeley, Durſley, Leechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marſhfield.
	Worceſter	Worceſter, Eveſham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminſter, and Perſhore.

Monmouth

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
3. Oxford Circuit continued.	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepſtow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Lemſter, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Roſs.
	Salop —	Shrewſhury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Biſhop's Caſtle, Whitchurch, Oſweſtry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford —	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcaſtle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone.
4. Midland Circuit.	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulceſter, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leiceſter	Leiceſter, Melton-Mowbray, Aſhby-de-la-Zouch, Boſworth, and Harborough.
	Derby —	Derby, Cheſterfield, Wirkſworth, Aſhbourne, Bakewell, Balſover, and Buxton.
	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, Eaſt and Weſt Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Workſop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln —	Lincoln, Stamford, Boſton, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimſby, Gainſborough, Louth, and Horncaſtle.
	Rutland	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapſton, Towceſter, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
5. Weſtern Circuit.	Hants —	Wincheſter, Southampton, Portſmouth, Andover, Baſingſtoke, Chriſtchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumſey, Arlesford, and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the Iſle of Wight.
	Wilts —	Saliſbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmſbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminſter.
	Dorſet —	Dorcheſter, Lime, Sherborn, Shaftſbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridgeport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerſet —	Bath, Wells, Briſtol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilcheſter, Minehead, Milbourn-port, Glaſtonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunſter, Wachet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croſcomb, and Froome.
	Devon —	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnſtable, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Taviſtock, Topſham, Okehampton, Aſhburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totneſs, Axminſter, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall —	Launceſton, Falmouth, Truro, Saltaſh, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padſtow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leſkard, Leſtwithiel, Helſton, Penzance, and Redruth.

York

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
6. Northern Circuit*.	York —	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnesly, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirske, Gisborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
	Durham —	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Aukland.
	Northumb.	Newcastle, Tinmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkshead, and Newton.
	Westmorel.	Appleby, Kendal, Lonsdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland.	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Keswick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middlesex is not comprehended; and Cheshire, being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Counties not included in the Circuits.	Middlesex	LONDON, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hamstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Chester —	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodisham, and Haulton.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

North-East Circuit.	Flint —	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh —	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgom.	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool.
North-West Circuit.	Anglesey —	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth	Dolgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.
South-East Circuit.	Radnor	Radnor, Prestean, and Knighton.
	Brecon	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansey.

* In the Lent or Spring Assizes, the Northern Circuit extends only to York and Lancaster; the Assizes at Durham, Newcastle, Appleby, and Carlisle, being held only in the Autumn, and distinguished by the appellation of the *Long Circuit*.

South-

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
South-Weſt Circuit.	Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordweſt, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiſcard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan	Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer.
	Caermarth.	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanimdovery, Llandilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

In ENGLAND.

40	Counties, which ſend up to parliament — —	80 knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London four) ——	50 citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each — —	334 burgeſſes.
5	Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrars, and Monmouth), one each —	5 burgeſſes.
2	Univerſities —— ——	4 repreſentatives.
8	Cinque ports (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford, two each — —	16 barons.

WALES.

12	Counties —— —— ——	12 knights.
12	Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each	12 burgeſſes.

SCOTLAND.

33	Shires —— ——	30 knights.
67	Cities and Boroughs —— ——	15 burgeſſes.
	Total	558

Beſides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton upon Hull, and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its juriſdiction a ſmall territory of two miles on the north ſide of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained: for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is ſo called, becauſe it ſends up burgeſſes to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and ſome not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they ſtill ſend burgeſſes to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at preſent hath, a biſhop; for if the biſhoprick be diſſolved, yet the city remains. To have ſuburbs proves it to be a city.

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] The ſoil of England and Wales differs in each country, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. We cannot enter upon particular proofs of theſe improvements. All that can be ſaid is in general, that if no unkindly ſeaſons hap-

pen, England produces corn, not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring in large ſums of ready money for her exports. The benefits from theſe exports have ſometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently ſpared; for which reaſon exportations have been properly regulated. No nation exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to ſuch perfection, that the rareſt of foreign fruits have been cultivated here with ſucceſs. If any farther proof of this ſhould be required, let it be remembered, that London and its neighbourhood, though peopled by 1,000,000 of inhabitants, is plentifully ſupplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within a few miles diſtance.

The plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the ſame time. Some have obſerved a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the fleets that England put to ſea; but it is ſuppoſed, with great probability, that great ſtores are ſtill in reſerve.

As to air, little can be added to what has been already ſaid concerning the climate *. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic ocean; but theſe are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate conſtitutions, rather diſagreeable than unhealthy. It cannot, however, be denied, that the weather is exceſſively capricious, and ſo unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to repair to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have obſerved in the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons, which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place is very undetermined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoary froſt inſtead of bloſſoms. The beginning of June is ſometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold; and upon an average September, and next to it October, are two of the moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. This inconſtancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: and it is hardly ever obſerved that the inhabitants ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the greateſt irregularity, and the moſt unfavourable appearances of the ſeaſons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity.

In ſpeaking of water, I do not include rivers, brooks, or lakes; I mean waters for the common conveniences of life, and thoſe that have mineral qualities. The

* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of king Charles the Second upon this ſubject, which is corroborated by that of ſir William Temple: and it may be obſerved, that they were both travellers. 'I muſt needs add one thing '(ſays ſir William, in his *Miſcellanea*, part ii. 'p. 114. edit. 8vo. 1690.) in favour of our cli-'mate, which I heard the king ſay, and I thought 'new and right, and truly like a king of England, 'that loved and eſteemed his own country. It was 'in reply to ſome company that were reviling our 'climate, and extolling thoſe of Italy and Spain, 'or at leaſt of France. He ſaid, "He thought "that was the beſt climate where he could be "abroad in the air with pleaſure, or at leaſt without trouble or inconvenience, the moſt days in "the year, and the moſt hours in the day; and "this he thought he could be in England, more "than in any country he knew in Europe." And 'I believe (adds ſir William) it is true, not only 'of the hot and the cold, but even among our 'neighbours in France and the Low Countries 'themſelves, where the heats or the colds, and 'changes of ſeaſons are leſs treatable (or moderate) 'than they are with us.'

champaign parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains; though a diſcerning palate may perceive, that they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſome very high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and preſervation of their health; ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Cheltenham, Tunbridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is uſed as commonly as any other for medicinal purpoſes; and ſo delicate are the tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one coaſt and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS. The induſtry of the Engliſh ſupplies the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates, and in many reſpects even exceeds them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently ſwelling, and both forming proſpects ſurpaſſing the pictures of fancy; the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of encloſures and plantations, the noble ſeats, cheerful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by deſcription. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure; but nothing can better prove the extent of Engliſh induſtry, than obſerving that ſome of the pleaſanteſt counties in the kingdom are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour; and, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful riſing-grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains of great altitude. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, Skiddaw in Cumberland, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwold in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon, in Wales. In general, however, Wales, and the northern parts, may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence. The Thames riſes on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little S. W. of Cirenceſter, and after receiving many ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; then it flows to London, and, after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London-bridge. It was formerly a reproach to England, among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it had, from the Nore to the laſt mentioned place. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges, and the world cannot parallel, for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter and Black Friars. Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton-

Hampton-court have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides. The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham.

The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales, becomes navigable at Welch-Pool, runs eaſt to Shrewſbury, then turning ſouth, viſits Bridgenorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction, is near its mouth increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol-channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ſhips which cannot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle under Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England are the Ouſe (a Gaelic word ſignifying *water* in general), which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German Sea at Tinmouth, below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German Sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German Sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from ſouth to north through Weſtmoreland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh Sea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and paſſing by Preſton diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey, which runs from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh Sea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and indeed, in ſome places from the face of the country, that meres and fens were frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſay mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. Theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon unite, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. The northern counties of Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and Lancaſhire, contain ſeveral ſmall lakes, which are remarkable for their beauty. The various diſpoſition of their banks, ſometimes cultivated, often covered with wood, or enlivened by herds, the intermixture of hill and dale, rude rocks and green mountains, render the ſcenery of this part of England ſcarcely inferior to that of Switzerland and Italy.

Forests.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for political purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſubjects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of grounds into foreſts, for the benefit of hunting, and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves: ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time of paſſing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the foreſt-laws; and juſtices in eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe tracts were diſforeſted; and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are

thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, Dean, and Sherwood. Theſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large foreſts of cheſnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain freſh and undecayed, though ſome of them are above 600 years old.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall are the principal. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before the Chriſtian æra; and ſince the Engliſh have manufactured their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore called mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till about 80 years ago. Sir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a-year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis caliminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners are ſaid to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh coined ſilver is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of free-ſtone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheſhire yield alum and ſalt pits. The Engliſh fullers earth is of ſuch conſequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under ſevere penalties. Pit and ſea-coal is found in many counties of England: but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhoprick of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries is very conſiderable.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. This is ſo copious a ſubject, and ſuch improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, even ſince the beſt printed accounts we have ſeen, that much muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation and experience. Nothing can be ſaid with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grains growing in the kingdom. Excellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England, and their members are ſo public-ſpirited as to print periodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experiments, which ſerve to ſhew that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection. Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to mention in what plenty the moſt excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, raſberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here, and what quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordſhire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is by many preferred to French white wine. The Engliſh have made the different fruits of the world their own, ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot beds and other artificial means. The Engliſh pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Perſia, and Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making wine; and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſallads.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful than in the cultivation of graſſes for meliorating the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which now form a conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch and the Welch cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſtures. The Engliſh horſes are the beſt in the world. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry render them ſuperior to all others in war: and an Engliſh hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chace. Thoſe which draw equipages on the ſtreets of London are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horſes has become a conſiderable article of commerce. The breed of aſſes and mules begin likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are generally divided into two kinds; thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. In ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in thoſe of their horſes and dogs; and in Lincolnſhire particularly, it is not uncommon for one of thoſe animals to ſell for 50l. It is thought that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which, at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000l. The other kind of ſheep which are fed upon the downs, where they have what the farmers call a ſhort bite, is little inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bull-dogs are ſaid to be the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies; but, either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bull-dogs upon one of the fierceſt lions in the Tower, and they ſoon conquered him. The maſtiff has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England. What is obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries is applicable to the Engliſh game cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage of theſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive, without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this animal are extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are much the ſame in England as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, growſe, quail, landrail, ſnipe, woodpigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds; Canary birds alſo breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea-fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and

and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake fiſh, called char, which is found in ſome freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and, as ſome ſay, no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkate, ſoles. The john dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſts. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, ſhrimps, and eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell-fiſhes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the Engliſh ſeas. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt; but great numbers of porpoiſes and ſeals appear in the channel. The Engliſh have been, perhaps, with great juſtice, accuſed of not paying proper atttention to their fiſheries. The beſt fiſh that comes to the tables of the great in London are ſold by the Dutch to Engliſh boats, and that induſtrious people even take them upon the Engliſh coaſts. Great attention, it is true, has been paid within theſe forty years paſt to this important concern. Many public-ſpirited noblemen and gentlemen formed themſelves into a company for carrying on a Britiſh fiſhery. Large ſums were ſubſcribed, and paid with unbounded generoſity. Buſſes and other veſſels were built, and the moſt pleaſing proſpects of ſucceſs preſented themſelves to the public. But they were unaccountably diſappointed, though it is hard to ſay from what cauſe; perhaps the price of Engliſh labour was too dear for bringing the commodity to the market upon the ſame terms as the Dutch.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The exemption of the Engliſh conſtitution from the deſpotic powers exerciſed in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reaſon why it is very difficult to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occaſionally be done by parliament, without any violation of public liberty, and probably ſoon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they muſt be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, the emigrations of natives to the colonies, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in ſhipping, are matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous than the eſtimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain, before the laſt, annually employed about 200,000 Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scots and Iriſh by ſea and land; and its progreſs carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed ſenſibly felt, but not ſo much as during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice. At the ſame time, I am not of opinion, that England is at preſent naturally more populous than ſhe was in the reign of Charles I. though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh of former ages were ſtrangers to the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes of living deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, it might reaſonably be preſumed, would be favourable to mankind; but this advantage has been ſaid to be more than counterbalanced by the practice of engroſſing farms. I will take the liberty to make another obſervation, which falls within the cogniſance of almoſt every man, and that is, the incredible increaſe of foreign names upon our pariſh books, and public liſts, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be preſumptuous to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England and Wales; but, in my opinion, they muſt exceed ſeven millions. Some may ſuppoſe this to be too large a calculation: and it muſt be admitted, that England has been exceedingly drained by the late war. From the continual acceſſion of ſtrangers, and other obvious cauſes, it is impoſſible to eſtimate

mate the population of London according to rules derived from the proportions of births and burials. Beſides, at the very gates of this metropolis, 100,000 inhabitants are not included within the bills of mortality.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well ſized, regularly featured, moſt commonly fair and florid in their complexions. It is to be preſumed, that the vaſt numbers of foreigners intermarried with the natives have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions different from thoſe of their anceſtors 150 years ago. The women, in their ſhapes, features, and complexions, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beſide the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England they are ſtill more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domeſtic life. Of all European nations, the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination; inſomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe by its true name in any polite company. This over-ſenſibility has been conſidered as one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities, which ſo ſtrongly characteriſe the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſlighteſt appearances into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home to themſelves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution or conſtancy of mind. In ſhort, many of the Engliſh feel, as if it really exiſted, every evil in mind, body, and eſtate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals they are ſenſible of this abſurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, ſtriving to baniſh it by diſſipation, riot, intemperance, and diverſions. They are fond, for the ſame reaſon, of convivial aſſociations; and when theſe are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cures for the mental evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Hanover. The Engliſh nobility and gentry of great fortunes now aſſimilate their manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourſe than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they viſit, but they travel for the purpoſes of ſociety, and at more advanced periods of life, while their judgments are mature, and their paſſions regulated. This has enlarged ſociety in England, which foreigners now viſit as commonly as Engliſhmen viſited them, and the effects of this intercourſe become daily more viſible, eſpecially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one ſex.

Such of the Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen, who do not ſtrike into high walks of life, affect rather what is called a ſnug way of living. They underſtand, perhaps, better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages, and eſtates, which they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe; it has, however, been obſerved, that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form are ſincere, cheerful, and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend into the lower ranks, and are often diſcernable among tradeſmen. This love of conveniency may be called the ruling paſſion of the Engliſh, and the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues. A good œconomiſt, with a briſk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from buſineſs; that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or to ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing

footing of a gentleman; but his ſtyle of living is always judiciouſly ſuited to his circumſtances.

Few people know better than tradeſmen, and men of buſineſs in England, how to pay court to their cuſtomers and employers. Thoſe arts they conſider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too often leads them into a contrary extreme. This carries them to that petulance, which is ſo offenſive to ſtrangers, and though encouraged, through the want of education, has its root in the nobleſt of principles badly underſtood, I mean that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property.

The humanity of the Engliſh is diſcovered in nothing more than in the ſubſcriptions for public charities. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuffers, and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with a liberality, that may prove injurious to induſtry; becauſe it takes from the lower ranks the uſual motives of labour, that they may ſave ſomewhat for themſelves and families, againſt the days of age or ſickneſs. The very people who contribute to thoſe collections, are aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for a maintenance; and upwards of three millions is ſaid to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purpoſes. The inſtitutions of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The ſums beſtowed on building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, often begets heat and cabals, very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and even to party conſiderations. Notwithſtanding thoſe proviſions, which would baniſh poverty from any other country, the ſtreets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of diſtreſs, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice puniſhable.

The Engliſh, though iraſcible, are the moſt placable people in the world, and will often ſacrifice part of their intereſt rather than proceed to extremity. They are eaſily prevailed upon to forgive injuries, and they carry this lenity too far, by accepting of profeſſions of ſorrow publiſhed in advertiſements by thoſe who offend them, and who often laugh at the eaſineſs of their proſecutors for diſmiſſing them ſo gently. The unſuſpecting nature of the Engliſh and their honeſt open manners, eſpecially of thoſe in the mercantile way, often render them dupes. They liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to the relief of the parties, ſometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The loweſt of the people are capable of generous actions; but they often make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is among perſons of all ranks an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above moſt other conſiderations. This offenſive failing ariſes partly from the people being ſo much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and for almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours, and diſtinctions.

The ſame attention to property operates in many other ways among the lower claſſes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and diſregardful of all about them: nor are the higher orders exempt from the ſame failing. The ſame principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the firſt rank have been ſeen laying bets with butchers and coblers at horſe-races, and boxing-matches. Gentlemen and merchants of great property are ſometimes not to be diſtinguiſhed, either by their dreſs or converſation, even from their ſervants; and a wager offered to be ſtaked in ready money againſt a pennyleſs antagoniſt has been often

often thought a deciſive argument in public company; but the practice of laying wagers has become much leſs prevalent than it uſed to be.

An Engliſhman, of education and reading, is the moſt accompliſhed gentleman in the world. He is however ſhy and reſerved in his communications, and a man may be in company with him for months, without diſcovering that he knows any thing beyond the verge of a farm-yard, or above the capacity of a horſe-jockey. This coldneſs is ſo far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Learning and genius often meet not with ſuitable regard even from the firſt-rate Engliſhmen: and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the ſtate-diſtinction of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the few who met with preferments in the ſtate might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarcely have an inſtance, even in the munificent reign of Queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius, as ſuch, being made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300l. a year of the public money, to aſſiſt him in his travels; and Mr. Pope, though a Roman Catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the Whig ſecretary of ſtate; and it was remarked, that his Tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a Papiſt. Indeed, a few men of diſtinguiſhed literary abilities, as well as ſome without, have of late received penſions from the crown; but, from the conduct of ſome of them, it ſhould ſeem, that ſtate and party ſervices have been expected in return.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious, and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic in the extreme. In many of their convivial meetings they are noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. This is particularly the caſe in large companies; but in ſmaller and more ſelect parties, all the pleaſures of rational converſation, and agreeable ſociety, are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives their ſoldiers an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon the muſket. Their paſſive courage is not leſs conſpicuous than their active. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, but for improving the invention of others; and in the mechanical arts, they excell all other nations. The intenſe application which an Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, it abſorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſences that are to be found in the nation,

All that I have ſaid concerning the Engliſh is to be underſtood of them in general; for it is not to be diſſembled, that every day produces ſtrong indications of alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and, above all, the amazing increaſe of territory as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, introduces a ſpecies of people, who have become rich without induſtry, and, by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver, have created a new ſyſtem of finances. Time alone can ſhew the event: hitherto the conſequences ſeem to have been unfavourable, as it has occaſioned a ſpirit of luxury and gaming attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and

traders to equal, or ſurpaſs, the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of buſineſs, which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance in dreſs and equipage, and the moſt expenſive amuſements and diverſions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

The cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this century, undergone a conſiderable change. Their ancient hoſpitality has much decayed; many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies, are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned ſtag and fox-hunting and horſe races, of which many Engliſhmen are fond even to infatuation. Somewhat, however, may be offered, by way of apology, for thoſe diverſions: the intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exerciſe; and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is increaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. Next to horſe-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both claſſes aſſemble round the pit at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the generous animal, every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in many parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. Many other paſtimes are common in England, ſome of them of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and aſs-races, dancing, puppet-ſhews, May garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic which the Engliſh boaſt of having carried to perfection. The barbarous diverſions of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the ſhews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practiſed; and all places of public diverſions, except the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diverſions, which are common to other countries, ſuch as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds, and thoſe highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich: for the farmers and country people deſtroy the game in their neſts, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Engliſh, has been often attacked, and as often defended.

Dress.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French; but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear on high occaſions, in cloth of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſatins, ſilks, and velvets, both flowered and plain, all which are now manufactured at home. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth, and the beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver-hat and roſe, all of black: his undreſs is a dark grey frock, and plain. The phyſicians,

the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tye perukes and ſwords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen, and men of buſineſs. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field, on which occaſions they dreſs with remarkable propriety. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; and the appearance of an artiſan or manufacturer in holiday times is commonly an indication of his induſtry and morals.

RELIGION.] Euſebius, and other ancient writers, poſitively aſſert, that Chriſtianity was firſt preached in South-Britain by the apoſtles and their diſciples; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that the ſucceſs of the Romans paved the way for the triumphs of the Goſpel of peace. It is certain alſo, that many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Chriſtians; and as their legions were repeatedly ſent over to England to extend as well as to preſerve their conqueſts, it is probable that thus Chriſtianity was diffuſed among the natives. If any of the apoſtles viſited this country and our heathen anceſtors, it was St. Paul, whoſe zeal, diligence, and fortitude were abundant. But who was the firſt preacher, or the preciſe year and period, the want of records leaves us in doubt; for the belief of Joſeph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the Goſpel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes ſuffering martyrdom here, reſts on no better foundation than monkiſh legends. We have good authority to ſay, that about the year 150, a great number of perſons profeſſed the Chriſtian faith, and, according to Archbiſhop Uſher, in the year 182, there was a ſchool of learning to provide the Britiſh churches with proper teachers; and from that period it ſhould ſeem that Chriſtianity advanced its benign and ſalutary influences among the inhabitants, in their ſeveral diſtricts. It is unneceſſary to repeat what has been ſaid in the Introduction, reſpecting the riſe and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion, and boldly refuted thoſe doctrines which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages. The conſtitution of the church is epiſcopal, and is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which, every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold, but in many places their tithes have been *impropriated*, i. e. conferred on the laity. The œconomy of the church of England has been accuſed for the inequality of its livings; ſome of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being two ſmall to maintain a clergyman, eſpecially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency: but this ſeems not eaſy to be remedied, unleſs the dignified clergy would adopt and ſupport the reforming ſcheme. The crown, as well as private perſons, has done great things towards the augmentations of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, ſuch as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes; ſome of them exceeding in value thoſe of biſhopricks, for which reaſon the revenues of a rich deanery, or other livings, is often annexed to a poor biſhoprick. At preſent, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a moſt flouriſhing condition, becauſe the value of their tithes increaſes with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The ſovereigns of England, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. have been called, in public writs, the ſupreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no ſpiritual meaning, as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any eccleſiaſtical differences; or, in other words, to ſubſtitute the king in place of the pope before the Reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in eccleſiaſtical

diſputes, unleſs by preventing the convocation from ſitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this deſcription of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops, beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who, not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers*. The two archbiſhops, are thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are both dignified with the addreſs of "Your Grace." The former is the firſt peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to hold eccleſiaſtical courts upon all affairs that were formerly cogniſable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting, in certain caſes, licences and diſpenſations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſbury, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws of England, ſuch extenſive powers, that ever ſince the death of archbiſhop Laud, government has thought proper to raiſe to that dignity men of moderate principles; and generally men of conſiderable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and conſequently of the ſtate.

The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes, not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beſides his own dioceſe, the biſhopricks of Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed by the appellation of your lordſhips, ſtiled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have the privileges of peers, and the biſhopricks of London, Wincheſter, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblemen. Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying-places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant admi-

* To the following liſt, I have ſubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's books; for though that ſum is far from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it aſſiſts in forming a comparative eſtimate between the revenues of each ſee with thoſe of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS.

Canterbury,	£	2682 : 12 : 2	York.	£	1610 : 0 : 0

BISHOPRICKS.

London,	2000 : 0 : 0	St. Aſaph,	187 : 11 : 8
Durham,	1821 : 1 : 3	Saliſbury,	1385 : 5 : 0
Wincheſter	3124 : 12 : 8	Bangor,	131 : 16 : 3
The biſhops of theſe three take precedency of all others in England, and the others according to the ſeniority of their conſecrations.		Norwich,	834 : 11 : 7
		Glouceſter,	315 : 7 : 3
		Landaff,	894 : 18 : 1
Ely,	2134 : 18 : 6	Lincoln	154 : 14 : 2
Bath and Wells,	533 : 1 : 3	Briſtol,	294 : 11 : 0
Hereford,	768 : 11 : 0	Carliſle,	531 : 4 : 9
Rocheſter,	358 : 4 : 0	Exeter,	500 : 0 : 0
Litchfield and Coventry,	559 : 17 : 3	Peterborough,	414 : 17 : 0
Cheſter,	420 : 1 : 8	Oxford,	381 : 11 : 0
Worceſter,	929 : 13 : 3	St. David's,	426 : 2 : 1
Chicheſter,	677 : 1 : 3		

niſtration

niſtration of goods to the heirs of ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit their own dioceſes once in three years.

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentioned; but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion for clergymen of eminence and merit, but intereſt often prevails over merit in the appointment. England contains about ſixty archdeacons, whoſe office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year, but their offices are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly ſtyled arch-preſbyters, who ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts and deacons.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, correſponding pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament, and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high-flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raiſed the powers of the convocation to a height that was inconſiſtent with the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and ever ſince they have not been permitted to ſit any length of time ſufficient to do buſineſs.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canterbury, and all appeals in church-matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches; and the advocates, who plead in this court, muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtrations taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhop's courts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than fifteen of theſe peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own, called the conſiſtory court. Every archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and in England, no religious ſect is prevented from worſhipping God in that manner which their conſciences approve. Some ſevere laws were, indeed, lately in force againſt thoſe proteſtant diſſenters who rejected the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but theſe laws were ſeldom executed; and, in 1779, religious liberty received a conſiderable augmentation, by an act which was then paſſed for granting a legal toleration to diſſenting miniſters and ſchoolmaſters. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain, that epiſcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the reſtoration of his ſon, has ever ſince prevailed in England. The wiſdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conſpicuous in diſcouraging all religious perſecution and intolerancy, and if religious ſectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the ſame principle that civil licentiouſneſs has prevailed; I mean a tenderneſs in matters that affect either conſcience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon, and even ſo late as that of Elizabeth,

beth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power, for a farther reformation. Thence aroſe the *puritans*, ſo called from their maintaining a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and ſome of them good patriots. Their deſcendants are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological ſentiments have undergone a conſiderable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, inſtituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. But the modern Engliſh preſbyterians, in their ideas of church-government, differ little from the independents, or congregationaliſts, who are ſo called from holding the independency of congregational churches; and in this ſenſe almoſt all the *diſſenters* in England are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the preſbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their miniſters have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning and abilities, and ſome of their writings are held in high eſtimation by the clergy and other members of the eſtabliſhed church. The ſame may be ſaid of ſome of the independent and baptiſt-miniſters. The independents are generally Calviniſts. The baptiſts do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptiſm, and in the baptiſm of adults they practiſe immerſion into water. They are divided into two claſſes, which are ſtyled general baptiſts, and particular baptiſts. The general baptiſts are Arminians, and the particular baptiſts are Calviniſts. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the proteſtant diſſenters with affection and friendſhip: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not material to ſalvation; nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines which were formerly generally conſidered as too ſacred to be oppoſed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worſhip have been eſtabliſhed in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and ſeveral clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and aſſigned their diſbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *Methodiſts* are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. All we know is, that they pretend to great fervor and devotion, and their founder thought that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, and he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. His followers are rigid obſervers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profeſs themſelves to be Calviniſts. But even the ſect of methodiſts are divided: not to mention a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their ſeparate followers, but very few at London and other places in England. Mr. Whitfield died ſome years ſince; but the places of worſhip erected by him, near London, are ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a great reſpect for his memory. Mr. Weſley and his followers oppoſe ſome of the Calviniſtic doctrines, particularly that of predeſtination; but they appear ſtill to retain the greater part. He has erected a place of public worſhip near Moorfields, and has under him a conſiderable number of preachers, who appear to ſubmit to their

their leader implicitly, propagate his opinions, and make proſelytes with great induſtry.

The Quakers are a religious ſect which took its riſe about the middle of the laſt century; a ſummary account of their tenets having been publiſhed by themſelves, the following is abſtracted from it.

"They believe in one eternal God, the Creator and preſerver of the univerſe, and in Jeſus Chriſt his Son, the Meſſiah and Mediator of the new covenant.

"When they ſpeak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, reſurrection and aſcenſion of our Saviour, they uſe Scriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

"To Chriſt alone they give the title of the word of God and not to the Scriptures, although they highly eſteem theſe ſacred writings, in ſubordination to the Spirit, from which they were given forth.

"They believe (and it is their diſtinguiſhing tenet), that every man coming into the world, is endued with a meaſure of the light, grace, or good ſpirit of Chriſt, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to diſtinguiſh good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propenſities of his nature, which mere reaſon is altogether inſufficient to overcome.

"They think the influence of the Spirit eſpecially neceſſary to the performance of worſhip; and conſider as obſtructions to pure worſhip, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the ſecret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on Chriſtians to meet often together, and to wait in ſilence to have a true ſight of their condition beſtowed upon them; believing even a ſingle ſigh ariſing from ſuch a ſenſe to be more acceptable to God, than any performances, however ſpecious, which originate in the will of man.

"As they do not encourage any miniſtry but that which is believed to ſpring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, ſo neither do they reſtrain this influence to perſons of any condition in life, or to the male ſex alone; but as male and female are one in Chriſt, they allow ſuch of the female ſex, as are endued with a right qualification for the miniſtry, to exerciſe their gifts for the general edification of the church.

"Reſpecting Baptiſm, and what is termed the Lord's Supper, they believe, that the baptiſm with water, adminiſtered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreaſing diſpenſation.

"With reſpect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Chriſt and his church is not maintained by any external performance; but only by a real participation of his divine nature through faith.

"They declare againſt oaths and war; abiding literally by Chriſt's poſitive injunction, "Swear not at all." From the precepts of the Goſpel, from the example of our Lord, and from his ſpirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the goſpel.

"They diſuſe the names of the months and days, which were given in honour of the heroes or falſe gods of the heathens; and the cuſtom of ſpeaking to a ſingle perſon in the plural number, as having ariſen alſo from motives of adulation. Compliments, ſuperfluity of apparel, and furniture, outward ſhews of rejoicing, and mourning, and obſervations of days and times, they eſteem to be incompatible with the ſimplicity and ſincerity of a Chriſtian life; and public diverſions, gaming, and other vain amuſements of the world, they condemn as a waſte of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the ſober duties of life.

"This ſociety hath a diſcipline eſtabliſhed among them, the purpoſes of which

are

are, the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the ſupport of the teſtimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of ſuch as are overtaken in faults.

"It is their decided judgment that it is contrary to the goſpel to ſue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by ſpeedy and impartial arbitration according to rules laid down. If any refuſe to adopt this mode, or having adopted it, to ſubmit to the award, it is the rule of the ſociety that ſuch be diſowned."

"It is well known that William Penn, one of this ſociety, founded the province of Pennſylania, and introduced therein a plan of civil and religious liberty, particularly of the latter, at that time unexampled. The government of the province was at firſt, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the Quakers; but as perſons of other perſuaſions increaſed, and became partakers of power, they grew uneaſy at the pacific plan of the Quakers, and at length ſucceeding to eſtabliſh ſuch modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter, theſe gradually withdrew themſelves from active employments of the ſtate. For ſome time previous to the late revolution, few of them were found in any other ſtation that that of private citizens; and during its progreſs, their refuſing to arm expoſed them to much ſuffering, by diſtraints levied on them, in order to procure their quota in ſupport of the war.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Though the penal laws againſt Papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſevere, yet they are either not executed, or with ſo much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are found out for their double taxes upon their landed property, and as they are ſubject to none of the expences and troubles (unleſs voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the Engliſh Papiſts are in general in good circumſtances, as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws againſt them have alſo lately been repealed, much to the ſatisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raiſed againſt the meaſure by ignorance and bigotry. They now ſeem to be convinced, that a change of government would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would increaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature, which muſt undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This conſideration has of late made the Roman catholics as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has. Scarcely any Engliſh Papiſts, excepting thoſe who were bred, or had ſerved abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745; and though thoſe at home were carefully obſerved, few of them were found guilty of diſloyal practices.

As England has been remarkable for the variety of its religious ſects, ſo it has been famous for its *Freethinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different ſenſes. It has ſometimes been uſed to denote oppoſers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has alſo been applied to thoſe who have been far from diſbelieving Chriſtianity, and who have only oppoſed ſome of thoſe doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceived to be no part of the original Chriſtian ſyſtem. As to thoſe who are truly *Deiſts*, or *Infidels*, there is abundant reaſon to believe, that this claſs of men is much more numerous in ſome Popiſh countries than in England. Chriſtianity is ſo much obſcured and diſfigured by the fopperies and ſuperſtitions of the Romiſh church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced againſt it, when they ſee it in ſo diſadvantageous a form: and this appears to be very much the caſe

abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of ſeeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have leſs cauſe to be prejudiced againſt it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear that the writings of the Deiſts againſt Chriſtianity have been of any real diſſervice to it. On the contrary, they have cauſed the arguments in its favour to be examined with greater force and clearneſs, and have been the means of producing ſuch defences of it, as all the acuteneſs of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

LANGUAGE.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon predominates; and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader, but relatively it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more harmonious than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is, however, ſubject to provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the loweſt of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred perſons, there is little difference in their pronunciation. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, alſo commonly either ſpeak, or underſtand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spaniſh: but it has been obſerved, that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding the Engliſh who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is much diſuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe; nor has there ſince his time been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume. The Engliſh inſtitutions, for the benefit of ſtudy, partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the eaſe, the diſencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its profeſſors; witneſs the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, inſtitutions that are not to be equalled in the world, and which were reſpected amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who publiſhed a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons, who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood-royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the Confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the Muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable to omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to ſir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illuſtrious man, we find treatiſes upon grammar, mathematics, phyſics, the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geography, aſtronomy, chronology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford, about the year 1294. Mr. Walpole has preſerved the memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes, and to this work I muſt refer. Since the Reforma-

tion, England reſembles a galaxy of literature*; and it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge, that his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical learning in England. As many of the Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, encouraged theſe foreigners, and ſhewed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning. Learning, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England during the bigoted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and ſtate; but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments as ſecondary to their civil. In this ſhe ſhewed herſelf a great politician, but ſhe would have been a more amiable queen, had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity; for though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spenſer's Muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon by a taſteleſs miniſter, that the poet languiſhed to death in obſcurity. Though ſhe taſted the beauties of the divine Shakſpeare, yet we know not that they were diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, both liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author, but his example had an effect upon his ſubjects; for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgotten, that the ſecond Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden, and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are ſtill ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taſte himſelf, he was the means of diffuſing a ſimilar taſte among his ſubjects.

His ſon Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts; ſo that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a ſecond Athens; and the collection he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000l. upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities.

The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immenſe acquiſitions he made of antiquities, eſpecially his famous marble inſcriptions, he may ſtand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greateſt of the Medicean princes. Charles and his court had little reliſh for poetry; but ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Jonſon, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to the preſent time.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts ſuffered indeed an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding interregnum. Many learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they purſued their ſtudies, to the benefit of

* See the Biographia Britannica.

every

every branch of learning; and many works of literary merit appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Walton, Willes, Harrington, Wilkins, and a number of other great names, were unmoleſted and even favoured by that uſurper; and he would even have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of thoſe ſtudies, and though irreligious himſelf, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt, by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was not diſregarded ſo much as has been apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his own court in ſeveral of the polite arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtyle, and truer energy, than it had ever known before. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not under him boaſt of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet ſir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity in architecture than had before prevailed. Nor was ſir Chriſtopher Wren merely diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill as an architect*. His knowledge was very extenſive, and his diſcoveries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the Royal Society. Some excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) alſo flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for ſtrength of reaſoning and depth of erudition never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular eſteem for the latter, as he had alſo for Tillotſon and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flouriſhed, however, in his reign merely by the excellency of the ſoil in which it had been planted.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which put her court at leaſt on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verſe and proſe, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the Engliſh were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of valuable knowledge.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were

* Mr. Horace Walpole ſays, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the univerſality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the greatneſs, of ſir Chriſtopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's have not left, upon the whole, a more perfect edifice than this work of a ſingle mind. The nobleſt temple, one of the largeſt palaces, and the moſt ſumptuous hoſpital in Britain, are all the works of the ſame hand. He reſtored London, and recorded its fall. He built above fifty pariſh churches, and deſigned the monument.

no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was himſelf no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates, as it was in the early years of his reign; a proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began then to taſte the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progreſs has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted, ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and ſculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. Notwithſtanding theſe favourable circumſtances, the fine arts (except muſic, the encouragement of which becomes daily more extravagant) have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have ſo juſt a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with ſtatues. The ſculptors meet with little employment, nor is the hiſtorical painter much patronized; though the Britiſh artiſts of the preſent age have proved their genius not inferior to that of any other nation.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in general, the Engliſh excel in what we call the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilities and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which occurs in the appointments, for the laſt 200 years, of their lord chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontrolable judicial ſeat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowleged, that, during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption or partial affections. The few inſtances that may be alledged to the contrary fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was cenſured indeed for corrupt practices, but malevolence itſelf does not ſay that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his ſervants. The caſe of one his ſucceſſors is ſtill more favourable to his memory, as his cenſure reflects diſgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordſhip was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conſcience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, was never accuſed of partiality in the cauſes that came before him as chancellor.

It muſt be acknowledged, that neither pulpit nor bar-eloquence have been ſufficiently ſtudied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The ſermons of their divines are often learned, and always ſound as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious ſects in England require to be oppoſed rather by reaſoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has, however, prevailed even among ſome of the clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes were weakened by thoſe powers of language with which they are adorned. A ſhort time, perhaps, may remove this prepoſſeſſion, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the firſt and faireſt handmaid of argumentation. The reader is not to imagine, that I am inſinuating that the preachers of the Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elocution: no clergy in the world can equal them in purity and perſpicuity of language, though I think that if they ſtudied more than they do the power of expreſſion, they would preach with more effect. If the reſemblance of thoſe powers coming from the mouths of ignorant enthuſiaſts, are attended with the amazing effects we daily ſee, what muſt not be the conſequence if they were exerted and ſupported with ſpirit and learning?

The laws of England are of ſo peculiar a caſt that the pleadings at the bar do not admit,

admit, or but very ſparingly, of the flowers of ſpeech: and I am apt to think, that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would produce a ridiculous effect in Weſtminſter-hall. The Engliſh lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well verſed in rhetoric and reaſoning.

Parliamentary ſpeaking, not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce ſo many examples of true eloquence as the Engliſh ſenate; witneſs the fine ſpeeches made by both parties in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and thoſe that have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family.

Medicine and ſurgery, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, and all the arts or ſtudies for preſerving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the Engliſh. Even agriculture and mechaniſm are now reduced in England to ſciences, and that too without any encouragement but ſuch as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate themſelves for that purpoſe. In ſhip-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they ſtand unrivalled.

Universities.] I have already mentioned the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the ſeminaries of more learned men than any in Europe. It is certain that their buildings, which in ſplendor and architecture rival the moſt ſuperb royal edifices, the endowments, the liberal eaſe and tranquillity enjoyed by thoſe who inhabit them, ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. So reſpectable are they in their foundations, that each univerſity ſends two members to parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities. In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain themſelves. This univerſity is of great antiquity: it is ſuppoſed to have been a conſiderable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden ſays, that "wiſe antiquity did, even in the Britiſh age, conſecrate this place to the Muſes." It is ſaid to have been ſtyled an univerſity before the time of king Alfred; and the beſt hiſtorians admit, that this moſt excellent prince was only a reſtorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and a third for grammar.

The number of officers, fellows, and ſcholars, maintained at preſent by the revenues of this univerſity, is about 1000, and the number of ſuch ſcholars as live at their own charge is uſually about 2000; the whole amounting to 3000 perſons, beſides a great number of inferior officers and ſervants belonging to the ſeveral colleges and halls. Here are four terms every year for public exerciſes, lectures, and diſputations, and particular days and hours when the profeſſors of every faculty read their lectures; and in ſome of the colleges are public lectures, to which all perſons are admitted.

There are libraries belonging to the ſeveral colleges; but beſides theſe, there are two other public libraries, the univerſity library and the Radcliffe library. The univerſity library is uſually called the Bodleian library, from ſir Thomas Bodley, its principal founder. It is a large lofty ſtructure, in the form of a Roman H, and is ſaid to contain the greateſt number of books of any library in Europe, except perhaps the Vatican. The original library has been prodigiouſly increaſed, by many large and valuable collections of Greek and Oriental manuſcripts, as well as other choice and curious books. The Radcliffe library is a ſumptuous pile of building; and was built at the ſole expence of that eminent phyſician Dr. John Radcliffe, who bequeathed forty thouſand pounds for this purpoſe. The theatre at Oxford is alſo a very magnificent ſtructure, which was erected by ſir Chriſtopher Wren, at the expence of archbiſhop Sheldon. In this edifice are performed the public

acts.

acts of the univerſity: on which occaſions the vice-chancellor being ſeated in the centre of the ſemi-circular part, the noblemen and doctors on his right and left-hand, the proctors and curators in their robes, the maſters of arts, batchelors and under-graduates, in their reſpective habits and places, together ſometimes with a great concourſe of ſtrangers of both ſexes, it makes a moſt auguſt appearance.

The colleges of Oxford are,

Univerſity, which is ſituated near, or on the ſpot, where the colleges or halls which were erected by king Alfred ſtood.

Baliol, founded by ſir John de Baliol, in 1263.

Merton, founded by Walter de Merton, biſhop of Rocheſter, and high chancellor of England, in 1267.

Exeter, founded in 1316, by Walter Stapleton, biſhop of Exeter, and lord treaſurer of England.

Oriel, founded by Edward II. in the year 1324.

Queen's, founded by Robert Eglesfield, chaplain to queen Philippa, conſort to Edward III. in her honour.

New College, founded in 1386, by William of Wykeham, biſhop of Wincheſter, but finiſhed by Thomas de Rotheram, archbiſhop of York, and lord high chancellor, in the year 1475.

All Souls, founded by Henry Chichely, archbiſhop of Canterbury, in 1437.

Magdalen, founded by William Patten, alias Wainfleet, biſhop of Wincheſter, and lord chancellor, in the year 1458.

Brazen Noſe, founded in 1516, by William Smith, biſhop of Lincoln.

Corpus Chriſti, founded in 1516, by Richard Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter.

Chriſt Church, founded by cardinal Wolſey, in 1515, but completed by others, and is now the cathedral of the dioceſe.

Trinity, founded by ſir Thomas Pope, ſoon after the Reformation.

St. John Baptiſt was founded, in 1555, by ſir Thomas White, lord mayor of London.

Jeſus was begun by Dr. Hugh Price, prebendary of Rocheſter, and appropriated chiefly to the Welch.

Wadham, ſo called from its founder Nicholas Wadham, of Somerſetſhire, eſq. It was begun by him in the year 1609, but finiſhed after his death, by his lady, in 1613.

Pembroke, ſo called in honour of the earl of Pembroke, then lord high chancellor, was founded by Thomas Tefdal, eſq. and Richard Whitwicke, B. D. in 1624.

Worceſter was erected into a college by ſir Thomas Cooke, of Aſtley, in Worceſterſhire.

Lincoln college, which was founded by two biſhops of Lincoln.

To theſe 19 may be added Hertford college, formerly Hart-Hall; but a patent having paſſed the great ſeal in the year 1740 for erecting it into a college, that deſign is now carried into execution.

The five halls are theſe following: Alban-hall, Edmund-hall, St. Mary's-hall, New-Inn-hall, and St. Mary Magdalen-hall.

The Univerſity of Cambridge conſiſts of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are diſtinguiſhed by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are in every reſpect the ſame. They are the following:

Peter-houſe, founded by Hugh Balſham, prior of Ely, in 1257, who was afterwards biſhop of that ſee.

Clare-hall founded in 1340 by Richard Badew and lady Elizabeth Clare, counteſs of Ulſter.

Pembroke-hall, founded ſeven years after by a counteſs of Pembroke.

St. Bennet's or Corpus Chriſti, founded about the ſame time by the united guilds, or fraternities, of Corpus Chriſti and the bleſſed Virgin.

Trinity-hall, founded by William Bateman, biſhop of Norwich, about the year 1548.

Gonvil and Caius, founded by Edmund de Gonvil, in 1448, completed by biſhop Bateman, and additionally endowed, 200 years after, by John Caius, a phyſician.

King's college, founded by Henry VI. and completed by his ſucceſſors.

Queen's college was founded by the ſame king's conſort, but finiſhed by Elizabeth, wife to Edward IV.

Catharine-hall, founded by Richard Woodlark, in 147.

Jeſus college, founded by John Alcock, biſhop of Ely, in the reign of Henry VII.

Chriſt college was founded about the ſame time, by that king's mother, Margaret, counteſs of Richmond.

St. John's college was founded by the ſame lady.

Magdalen college was founded by Thomas Audley, baron of Walden, and lord high chancellor, in the reign of Henry VIII.

Trinity college was founded by Henry VII.

Emanuel college, by ſir Walter Mildmay, in 1584.

Sidney college was founded by Thomas Radcliff, earl of Suſſex, in 1588, and had its name from his wife Frances Sidney.

The whole number of fellows in the Univerſity of Cambridge are four hundred, and ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix ſcholars, with about two hundred and thirty-ſix officers and ſervants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation. Theſe, however, are not all the ſtudents of the univerſity; there are alſo two ſorts of ſtudents, called penſioners, the greater and the leſs; the greater penſioners are ſons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, becauſe, though they are ſcholars, they dine with the fellows; the leſſer penſioners dine with the ſcholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expence. There are alſo a conſiderable number of poor ſcholars, called ſizars, who wait upon the fellows and ſcholars and the penſioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but the number of penſioners and ſizars cannot be aſcertained, as it is in a ſtate of perpetual fluctuation.

The ſenate-houſe at Cambridge is an elegant edifice, executed in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt ſixteen thouſand pounds. Trinity college library is alſo a very magnificent ſtructure, and in Corpus Chriſti college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuſcripts, which were preſerved at the diſſolution of the monaſteries, and given to this college by archbiſhop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, Daniſh, and Anglo-Normanic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of worſhip in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circles and two ovals, which are thus compoſed: the upright ſtones are placed at three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart ſtones, with tenons fitted to the mortiſes in the uprights, for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are vaſtly large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights

rights are wrought a little with a chiſſel, and ſometimes tapered; but the tranſoms, or over-thwart ſtones, are quite plain. The outſide circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter; between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurpriſing and awful effect upon the beholders. After all the deſcriptions of and diſſertations upon this celebrated antiquity by ingenious writers, it is not to be denied, that it has given riſe to many extravagant ridiculous conjectures, from the time of Leland, who has been very particular on the ſubject, down to Stukely, who on a favourite point of antiquity ſometimes formed the moſt enthuſiaſtic conjectures. The barrows that are near this monument were certainly graves of perſons of both ſexes, eminent in peace or war; ſome of them having been opened, and bones, arms, and ancient trinkets, found within them.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland and the iſles.

The Roman antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly of altars and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Albans, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great *via militaris*, called Hermen-ſtreet, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it from Pontrefract to Doncaſter ſtrikes out to the weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. Many veſtiges of the Roman roads in England ſerve as foundations to our preſent highways. The earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorcheſter, in Dorſetſhire, where alſo is a Roman amphitheatre. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortifications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe, that they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and teſſelated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magiſtrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles are blended with thoſe of a later date; and it is difficult for the moſt expert architect to pronounce that ſome halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, and trinkets, which have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts Wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch; but, Severus built it with ſtone forts, and turrets at proper diſtances, ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to ſtrike the Scots and Picts with terror than to give any real ſecurity to the Roman poſſeſſions. In ſome places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly diſcernible. A critical account of the Roman antiquities

antiquities in England is among the desiderata of history; but perhaps it is too great a design for any one man to execute, as it cannot be done without visiting every place and every object in person.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices and places of streng h. At Winchester is shewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Camden and later writers, perhaps with reason; but if it be not British, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of the Saxons present themselves in different parts of the kingdom, though they are often not to be discerned from the Normanic; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly discernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences, but their forts are square.

England is full of Anglo-Normanic monuments, which I chuse to call so, because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman original, the expence was defrayed by Englishmen. York-minster and Westminster-hall and abbey are perhaps the finest specimens to be found in Europe of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom are, more or less, in the same taste, if we except St. Paul's. In short, these erections are so common, that they scarcely deserve the name of curiosities. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in some part of England, are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and seems to have been designed for secreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in time of war and invasion. It contains an oblong square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and tradition says, that this was the room in which the barons of England met during their wars with king John. The rock is soft, and very practicable; but it is hard to say where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage, about six feet high, and four wide, terminates.

The natural curiosities of England are so various, that I can touch upon them only in general. The medicinal waters and springs which are found in many parts of the country, have been analysed with great accuracy and care by several learned naturalists, who, as their interests or inclinations led them, have not been sparing in recommending their salubrious qualities. The most remarkable of these wells have been divided into those for bathing, and those for drinking. The chief of the former lie in Somersetshire and Derbyshire; and the Bath and Buxton waters are famous, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge, in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich, in Surry; and at Acton and Islington, in Middlesex. There also are many remarkable springs, whereof some are impregnated with salt, as that of Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire; and a dropping well in the west-riding of Yorkshire. And finally, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally

full of ſmall bones, like thoſe of frogs or fiſh, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan, in Lancaſhire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any ſmell; yet there is ſo ſtrong a vapour of ſulphur iſſuing out with the ſtream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning ſpirits, which laſts ſeveral hours, and emits ſo fierce a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itſelf will not burn when taken out of the well*.

Derbyſhire is celebrated for many natural curioſities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is ſaid to be continually mouldering away, but never diminiſhes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the ſame place, is a chaſm in the ſide of a mountain, near ſeven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminiſhing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the loweſt eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's Hole near Buxton, for ſeveral paces is very low, but ſoon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inſide of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much ſhort of what ſome have aſſerted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimenſion: a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its ſounding ſtream, re-echoed on all ſides, very much to the aſtoniſhment of all who viſit this vaſt concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof and on the ſides have an amuſing effect; for they not only reflect numberleſs rays from the candles carried by the guides, but as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in ſeveral places into various forms, which, with the help of a ſtrong imagination, may paſs for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Caſtleton, which is from its hideouſneſs named the Devil's Arſe, is wide at firſt, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who ſubſiſt by rope-making, and by guiding ſtrangers into the cavern, which is croſſed by four ſtreams of water, and terminates, at the diſtance of half a mile from the mouth, in a ſubterranean lake. The vault, in ſeveral places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various coloured ſtones.

Some ſpots of England are ſaid to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkſhire are found certain ſtones, reſembling the folds and wreaths of a ſerpent; alſo other ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, and ſo exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken, commonly contain the likeneſs of ſerpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glouceſterſhire ſtones are found, reſembling cockles, oyſters, and other teſtaceous marine animals.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } This head is ſo very extenſive, that I can only touch upon objects that may aſſiſt in giving the reader ſome idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London †, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire, is the firſt in this diviſion. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæſar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and ſoon after became the capital of the iſland. London was firſt walled about with hewn ſtones and Britiſh bricks by Conſtantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles, with ſeven principal gates. The ſame emperor made it a biſhop's ſee; for it appears that the

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been ſince dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceaſed.

† London is ſituated in 51° 31′ north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and 270 ſouth-eaſt of Dublin; 180 miles weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, 600 north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stockholm, 800 north-eaſt of Madrid, 820 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, and 1414 ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

biſhops of London and York, and another Engliſh biſhop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he alſo ſettled a mint in it, as is plain from ſome of his coins.

London, in its large ſenſe, including Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of ſurpriſing extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the moſt extenſive trade. This city, when conſidered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts ſend their commodities, from which theſe commodities are again returned. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are conſtantly employed: and from hence ariſes that circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a proſperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the moſt diſtant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen, witneſs their loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the ſhops of tradeſmen make ſuch an elegant appearance, or are better ſtocked.

It is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, a river, which, though not the largeſt, is the richeſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any in the world; it being continually filled with fleets, ſailing to or from the moſt diſtant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall, almoſt one continued magazine of naval ſtores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of merchant-ſhips, beſides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters, and the king's yards lower down the river for the building of men of war. As this city is about ſixty miles diſtant from the ſea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurpriſed by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt vapours of the ſea. It riſes regularly from the water-ſide, and extending itſelf on both ſides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country-ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the property of the ſubject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extenſion.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt, is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles from Hyde-park corner to Poplar, and its breadth in ſome places three, in others two; and in others again not much above half a mile. According to a modern meaſurement, the extent of continued buildings is 35 miles two furlongs and 39 roods. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the magnitude of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be above a million, and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Of theſe, beſide St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Weſtminſter, here are 102 pariſh churches, and 69 chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 26 independent meetings; 34 preſbyterian meetings; 20 baptiſt meetings; 19 popiſh chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and 3 Jews ſynagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-pariſhes uſually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodiſt tabernacles.

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes, about 20 hoſpitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public priſons, 15 fleſh-markets; 1 market for live cattle,

2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public ſquares, beſides thoſe within ſingle buildings, as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchools; and 131 charity-ſchools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes, 5975 alehouſes; 1000 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling-houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, above 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſume annually the following articles of proviſions:

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Poultry, and wild fowl innumerable	
Mackarel ſold at Billingſgate	14,740,000
Oyſters, buſhels	115,536
Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. beſides thoſe brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	16,000,000
Cheeſe, ditto, about	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of ſtrong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of ſmall beer	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	30,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other diſtilled waters, above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in courſe of time gave riſe to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly ſince the year 1756, when the houſes were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The paſſage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each ſide for foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames where it is 915 feet broad, and has 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each, but the centre one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter bridge is reckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each ſide is a fine balluſtrade of ſtone with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each ſide a fine foot-way for paſſengers. It conſiſts of 14 piers, and 13 large and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000 l. in ſtone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed in 1750, at the expence of 389,000 l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge is not inferior to that of Weſtminſter in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores obliged the architect

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to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expence of 152,840 l. which has been diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular Proteſtant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the croſs, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in ſome reſpects it is ſuperior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of ſir Chriſtopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the ſame magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finiſhed the building 37 years after he laid the firſt ſtone. It takes up ſix acres of ground, though the whole length of this church meaſures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at near a million ſterling.

Weſtminſter-abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne 4000l. a year, out of the coal-duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen's Walbrook is admired for its lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of ſir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for ſuch erections. Few churches in or about London are without ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent Garden is worthy the pureſt ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them. The Banqueting houſe at Whitehall is but a ſmall part of a ſplendid palace deſigned by Inigo Jones for the royal reſidence, and as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its ſymmetry and ornaments are in the higheſt ſtyle and execution of architecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, whoſe roof is not ſupported by pillars, it being 220 feet long, and 70 broad. Its roof is the fineſt of its kind that can be ſeen. Here are held the coronation feaſts of our kings and queens; alſo the courts of chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer.

The monument, erected at the charge of the city to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, from whence there are other ſteps, made for perſons to look out at the top, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II.

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and his brother, is emblematically repreſented in bas relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing it dreadful deſolation *, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhewing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by ſir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upwards of 13000 l.

The Royal Exchange, a large and commodious building, is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000 l.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the fineſt proſpects in the world.

We might here give a particular deſcription of the Tower †, Bank of England, the New Treaſury, the Admiralty-office, and the Horſe-guards at Whitehall, the Manſion-

* Which may be thus rendered: "In the year of Chriſt, in 1666, Sept. 2. eaſtward from hence at the diſtance of 202 feet (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only waſted the adjacent parts, but alſo very remote places, with incredible crackling and fury. It conſumed 89 churches, the city-gates, Guildhall, many public ſtructures, hoſpitals, ſchools, libraries, a vaſt number of ſtately edifices, 13,000 dwelling-houſes, and 400 ſtreets. Of the 26 wards it utterly deſtroyed 15, and left eight others ſhattered and half burnt. The ruins of the city were 436 acres, from the Tower by the Thames ſide to the Temple church; and from the north-eaſt along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the eſtates and fortunes of the citizens it was mercileſs, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things reſemble the laſt conflagration of the world. The deſtruction was ſudden, for in a ſmall ſpace of time the city was ſeen moſt flouriſhing and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when this fatal fire had baffled all human counſels and endeavours, in the opinion of all, it ſtopped, as it were by a command from heaven, and was on every ſide extinguiſhed."

† In examining the curioſities of the Tower of London, it will be proper to begin with thoſe on the outſide the principal gate; the firſt thing a ſtranger uſually goes to viſit is the wild beaſts; which, from their ſituation, firſt preſent themſelves: for having entered the outer gate, and paſſed what is called the ſpur-guard, the keeper's houſe preſents itſelf before you, which is known by a painted lion on the wall, and another over the door which leads to their dens. By ringing a bell, and paying ſix pence each perſon, you may eaſily gain admittance.

The next place worthy of obſervation is the Mint, which comprehends near one-third of the Tower, and contains houſes for all the officers belonging to the coinage. On paſſing the principal gate you ſee the White Tower, built by William the Conqueror. This is a large, irregular ſtone building, ſituated almoſt in the centre, no one ſide anſwering to another, nor any of its watch towers, of which there are four at the top, built alike. One of theſe towers is now converted into an obſervatory. In the firſt ſtory are two noble rooms, one of which is a ſmall armoury for the ſea-ſervice, it having various ſorts of arms, very curiouſly laid up, for above 10,000 ſeamen. In the other room are many cloſets and preſſes, all filled with warlike engines and inſtruments of death. Over this are two other floors, one principally filled with arms, the other with arms and other warlike inſtruments, as ſpades, ſhovels, pick-axes, and chevaux de frize. In the upper ſtory, are kept match, ſheep-ſkins, tanned hides, &c. and in a little room, called Julius Cæſar's chapel, are depoſited ſome records, containing perhaps the ancient uſages and cuſtoms of the place. In this building are alſo preſerved the models of the new-invented engines of deſtruction, that have from time to time been preſented to the government. Near the ſouth-weſt angle, of the White-Tower, is the Spaniſh armoury, in which are depoſited the ſpoils of what was vainly called the Invincible Armada; in order to perpetuate, to lateſt poſterity, the memory of that ſignal victory, obtained by the Engliſh over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of Philip II.

You next come to the grand ſtore-houſe, a noble building to the northward of the White Tower, that extends 245 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. It was begun by king James II. who built it to the firſt floor; but it was finiſhed by king William III. who erected that magnificent room, called the New, or Small Armoury, in which that prince, with queen Mary, his conſort, dined in great form, having all the warrant-workmen and labourers to attend them, dreſſed in white gloves and aprons, the uſual badges of the order of maſonry. To this noble room you are led by a folding-door, adjoining to the eaſt-end of the Tower-chapel, which leads to a grand ſtair-caſe of 50 eaſy ſteps. On the left ſide of the uppermoſt landing-place is the workſhop, in which are conſtantly employed about 14 furbiſhers, in cleaning, repairing, and new-placing the arms. On entering the armoury, you ſee what they call a wilderneſs of arms, ſo artfully diſpoſed, that at one view you behold arms for near 80,000 men, all bright, and fit for ſervice; and beſides thoſe expoſed to view, there were, before the late war ſixteen cheſts ſhut up, each cheſt holding about 1000 muſkets. The arms were originally diſpoſed by Mr. Harris, who contrived

Manſion-houſe of the lord-mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe, Exciſe-office, India-houſe, and many other public buildings; beſides the magnificent edifices raiſed by our nobility; as lord Spencer's houſe, Marlborough-houſe, and Buckingham-houſe in St.

trived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard-chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gunſmith; but after he had performed this work, which is the admiration of people of all nations, he was allowed a penſion from the crown for his ingenuity,

Upon the ground floor, under the ſmall armoury, is a large room of equal dimenſions with that, ſupported by 20 pillars, all hung round with implements of war. This room, which is 24 feet high, has a paſſage in the middle 16 feet wide.

The horſe armoury is a plain brick-building, a little to the eaſtward of the White-Tower; and is an edifice rather convenient than elegant, where the ſpectator is entertained with a repreſentation of thoſe kings and heroes of our own nation, with whoſe gallant actions it is to be ſuppoſed he is well acquainted; ſome of them equipped and ſitting on horſeback, in the ſame bright and ſhining armour they were uſed to wear when they performed thoſe glorious actions which give them a diſtinguiſhed place in the Britiſh annals.

You now come to the line of kings, which your conductor begins by reverſing the order of chronology; ſo that in following them we muſt place the laſt firſt.

In a dark, ſtrong ſtone-room, about 20 yards to the eaſtward of the grand ſtore-houſe, or new-armory, the crown jewels are depoſited. I. The imperial crown, with which it is pretended that all the kings of England have been crowned ſince Edward the Confeſſor, in 1040. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, ſapphires and pearls; the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. They are, however, miſtaken in ſhewing this as the ancient imperial diadem of St, Edward; for that, with the other moſt ancient regalia of this kingdom, was kept in the arched room in the cloiſters in Weſtminſter-Abbey, till the civil war; when, in 1642, Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke open the iron cheſt in which it was ſecured, took it thence, and ſold it, together with the robes, ſword, and ſceptre of St. Edward. However, after tne Reſtoration, king Charles II. had one made in imitation of it, which is that now ſhewn. II. The golden orb, or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned; and borne in his left hand with the ſceptre in his right, upon his return into Weſtminſter-Hall after he is crowned. It is about ſix inches in diameter, edged with pearl, and enriched with precious ſtones. On the top is an amethyſt, of a violet colour, near an inch and an half in height, ſet with a rich croſs of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious ſtones. The whole height of the ball and cup is 11 inches. III. The golden ſceptre, with its croſs, ſet upon a large amethyſt of great value, garniſhed round with table diamonds. The handle of the ſceptre is plain; but the pummel is ſet round with rubies, emeralds, and ſmall diamonds. The top riſes into a *fleur de lis* of ſix leaves, all enriched with precious ſtones, from whence iſſues a mound or ball, made of the amethyſt already mentioned. The croſs is quite covered with precious ſtones. IV. The ſceptre, with the dove, the emblem of peace, perched on the top of a ſmall Jeruſalem croſs, finely ornamented with table diamonds and jewels of great value. This emblem was firſt uſed by Edward the Confeſſor, as appears by his ſeal; but the ancient ſceptre and dove was ſold with the reſt of the regalia, and this now in the Tower was made after the Reſtoration. V. St. Edward's ſtaff, four feet ſeven inches and an half in length, and three inches three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the king at his coronation. VI. The rich crown of ſtate, worn by his majeſty in parliament; in which is a large emerald ſeven inches round; a pearl eſteemed the fineſt in the world, and a ruby of ineſtimable value. VII. The crown belonging to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales. The king wears his crown on his head while he ſits upon the throne; but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to ſhew that he is not yet come to it. VIII. The late queen Mary's crown, globe, and ſceptre, with the diadem ſhe wore at her coronation with her conſort king William III. IX. An ivory ſceptre, with a dove on the top, made for king James II.'s queen, whoſe garniture is gold, and the dove on the top gold, enamelled with white. X. The *curtana*, or ſword of mercy, which has a blade of thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two ſwords of juſtice, ſpiritual and temporal. XI. The golden ſpurs, and the armillas, which are bracelets for the wriſts. Theſe, though very antique, are worn at the coronation. XII. The *ampulla*, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with: and the golden ſpoon that the biſhop pours the oil into. Theſe are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedeſtal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expand about ſeven inches. The whole weighs about ten ounces. The head of the eagle ſcrews off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow, for holding the holy oil; and when the king is anointed by the biſhop, the oil is poured into the ſpoon out of the bird's bill. XIII. A rich ſalt-ſeller of ſtate, in form like the ſquare White Tower, and ſo exquiſitely wrought, that the workmanſhip of modern times is in no degree equal to it. It is of gold, and uſed only on the king's table at the coronation. XIV. A noble ſilver font, double gilt, and elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are chriſtened. XV. A large ſilver fountain, preſented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curi-

ouſly,

St James's park; the earl of Chesterfield's house near Hyde-park; the duke of Devonshire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's, in Berkley Square; Northumberland-house in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague-house *, in Bloomsbury; with a number of others of the nobility and gentry; but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great city is supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs, the keys of which are deposited with the parish-officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage: it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation: the premium is small †, and the re-

ously wrought; but much inferior in beauty to the above. Besides these, which are commonly shewn, there are in the jewel-office, all the crown jewels worn by the princes and princesses at coronations, and a great variety of curious old plate.

The record-office consists of three rooms, one above another, and a large round room, where the rolls are kept. These are all handsomely wainscoted, the wainscot being framed into presses round each room, within which are shelves and repositories for the records; and for the easier finding of them, the year of each reign is inscribed on the inside of these presses, and the records placed accordingly. Within these presses, which amount to 56 in number, are deposited all the rolls, from the first year of the reign of king John to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. but those after this last period are kept in the Rolls Chapel. The records in the Tower, among other things, contain the foundation of abbies, and other religious houses; the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a survey of the manors; the original of laws and statutes; proceedings of the courts of common law and equity; the rights of England to the dominion of the British seas; leagues and treaties with foreign princes; the atchievements of England in foreign wars; the settlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion; the forms of submission of some Scottish kings for territories held in England; ancient grants of our kings to their subjects; privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations during the period above mentioned; enrollments of charters and deeds made before the Conquest; the bounds of all the forests in England, with the several respective rights of the inhabitants to common pasture, and many other important records, all regularly disposed, and referred to in near a thousand folio indexes. This office is kept open, and attendance constantly given, from seven o'clock, till one, except in the months of December, January and February, when it is open only from eight to one, Sundays and holidays excepted. A search here is half a guinea, for which you may peruse any one subject a year.

* The British Museum is deposited in Montague house. Sir Hans Sloane, bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British Museum; for its being established by parliament, was only in consequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000l. to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000l. to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuscripts collected by the Oxford family, and purchased likewise by the parliament, and a collection of books, given by the late major Edwards. His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.

The Sloanian collection consists of an amazing number of curiosities; among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuscripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals, and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals 268. Vessels, &c. of agate, jasper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1125. Precious stones, agates, jasper, &c. 2256. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2725. Crystal, spars, &c. 1864. Fossils, flints, stones, 1275. Earths, sands, salts, 1035. Bitumens, sulphurs, ambers, &c. 399. Talcs, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, spunges, &c. 1421. Testacea, or sheils, &c. 5843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 659. Asteriæi trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Crustaceæ, crabs, lobsters, &c. 363. Stellæ marinæ, starfishes, &c. 173. Fish, and their parts, &c. 1555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and nests, of different species, 1172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1888. Vipers, serpents, &c. 521. Insects, &c. 5439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus siccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756, Miscellaneous things, natural, 2098. Mathematical instruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

† The terms of insurance are as follows, viz.

	s.	d.
Every person insuring shall pay annually for every 100l. insured on goods, inclosed in brick or stone —	2	0
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods — —	3	0
If hazardous — —	4	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous —	5	0
If hazardous, and hazardous —	6	0
For every 100l. insured on goods, inclosed in part brick and part timber —	2	6
If half hazardous, as to situation, or kind of goods — — —	3	9

covery, in caſe of loſs, eaſy and certain. Every one of theſe offices keep a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their aſſiſtance; and are extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but though their labours ſhould prove unſucceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that muſt ariſe from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has inſured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in hiſtory, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumſtances, ſuch as the want of water, rendered the city ſeldom free from peſtilential devaſtation. The fire which conſumed the greateſt part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of conſequences, which made ample amends for the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city aroſe on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it is ever to be lamented that the magnificent and uſeful plan of the great ſir Chriſtopher Wren was ſacrificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property. Views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nation in general; for had the great architect's plan been followed, what has often been aſſerted muſt have been the reſult; the metropolis of this kingdom would have been the moſt elegant city in the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt, from the prodigious reſort of foreigners of diſtinction and taſte who would have viſited it, have become a fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindneſs of that age has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is become abſolutely neceſſary that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the preſent plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the national character.

The plan of London, in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition as can eaſily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the borders of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient. And the want of regularity and uniformity in the ſtreets, and the mean avenues leading to many of them, are alſo circumſtances that greatly leſſen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewiſe thruſt up in corners in ſuch a manner as might tempt foreigners to believe that they were deſigned to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for ſome years paſt have, however, been great; and the new ſtreets, which are numerous, are in general more ſpacious, and built with greater regularity.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the Thames, was a number of inelegant, ruinous houſes, known by the names of Durham-Yard, the Savoy, and Somerſet-Houſe. The firſt, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of ſcenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the ſcite of Durham-Yard was raiſed upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting proſpect, the utility of its wharfs, and its ſubterraneous apartments anſwering a variety of purpoſes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi ſtands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuiſance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, ſtood Somerſet-Houſe, where, being the property of government alſo, a new pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are ele-

	s.	d.
If hazardous — — —	5	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous —	6	3
If hazardous, and hazardous —	7	6
For every 100l. inſured on goods, incloſed in timber — — —	3	0
If half hazardous, as to ſituation or kind of goods — — —	4	6

	s.	d.
If hazardous — — —	6	0
If hazardous, and half hazardous — —	7	6
If hazardous, and hazardous —	9	0

The premium is double upon any ſum between one and two thouſand, and treble between two and three thouſand pounds.

gant apartments appropriated for the uſe of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Though a variety of circumſtances have hitherto been diſadvantageous to the embelliſhment of the metropolis, it muſt at the ſame time be acknowledged, that a ſpirit of improvement ſeems univerſal amongſt all degrees of people. The very elegant and neceſſary method of paving and lighting the ſtreets is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles around upon the ſame model; and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide, at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſecure by watchmen ſtationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than thoſe lights when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads run acroſs; and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall-Mall, New Bond-ſtreet, Oxford-ſtreet, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Among the liſt of improvements worthy notice may be included the Six Clerks Office, in Chancery-lane, and that very ſubſtantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanlineſs, and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid ſounds iſſuing from the lips of thoſe wretched beings, who ſet defiance to all laws, divine and human; and here alſo the offender, whoſe crime is not capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free open air.

Foreigners are ſurpriſed that the monarchs of the richeſt nation in Europe ſhould be ſo indifferently lodged; eſpecially as Charles I. whoſe finances were but low, compared to ſome of his ſucceſſors, had he lived undiſturbed, would probably have completed the plan which Inigo Jones drew for a royal palace, and which would have been every way ſuitable to the dignity of an Engliſh monarch. The truth is, his ſon Charles II. though he had a fine taſte for architecture, diſſipated his revenues upon his pleaſures. The reign of his brother was too ſhort for ſuch an undertaking. Perpetual wars, during the reigns of king William and queen Anne, left the parliament no money to ſpare for a palace. The two ſucceeding monarchs were indifferent as to ſuch a piece of grandeur; and though ſeveral ſchemes were drawn up for that purpoſe, yet they were never carried into execution, on account of the enormous expence.

Windſor caſtle is the only fabric that deſerves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation, which, with the form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton Court was the favourite reſidence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and, like Windſor, lies near the Thames. Both theſe palaces have ſome good pictures, but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which for deſign and expreſſion are reckoned the maſter-pieces of painting, have by his preſent majeſty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton Court, to the queen's palace, formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's Park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kenſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Other houſes, though belonging to the king, are far from deſerving the name of royal *.

Next to theſe, if not ſuperior, in magnificence and expenſive decorations, are many private ſeats in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom,

* The ſituations that have been deemed the moſt eligible for a town and country reſidence, are Hyde Park, and Richmond Park, near Peterſham. A palace in the laſt mentioned place, if executed upon a liberal plan, would at once aſtoniſh the beholder with all that is great and noble in nature and art.

wherein the opulence of the Engliſh nation is fully diſplayed. Herein alſo the princely fortunes of the nobility are made ſubſervient to the fineſt claſſical taſte; witneſs the ſeats of the marquis of Buckingham, and earl Pembroke. At the ſeat of the latter more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the poſſeſſion of any other ſubject in the world. But thoſe houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that they are complete erections, the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and kept in the higheſt preſervation. It often happens, that the houſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the principal object of the ſeat, which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations, viſtas, opening landſcapes, temples, all the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence. Of which the following are the moſt diſtinguiſhed, viz.

The earl of Pembroke's, at Wilton, in Wiltſhire.
Lord Clifford's, King's-Weſton, Glouceſterſhire.
Duke of Beaufort's, Badmington-Magna, ditto.
Earl Spenſer's, Wimbledon, Surry.
The late ſir Gregory Page's, Blackheath, Kent.
Sir James Tylney Long's, Epping Foreſt, Eſſex.
Duke of Grafton's, Euſton-Hall, Suffolk.
Earl of Orford's, Houghton, Norfolk.
Duke of Marlborough's, Blenheim, Oxfordſhire.
Earl of Litchfield's, Ditchley, ditto.
Marquis of Buckingham's, Stowe, Buckinghamſhire.
Earl of Bute's, Luton Hoo, Bedfordſhire.
Earl of Winchelſea's, Okeham, Rutlandſhire.
Earl of Stafford's, Broughton, Northamptonſhire.
Earl of Pomfret's, Eaſton, ditto.
Earl Spenſer's, Althorp, ditto.
Earl of Exeter's, Stamford, ditto.
Duke of Norfolk's, Workſop, Nottinghamſhire.
Duke of Devonſhire's, Chatſworth, Derbyſhire.
Lord Scarſdale's, near Derby.
Mr. Aiſlabie's, Studley-Park, Yorkſhire.
Earl of Carliſle's, at Caſtle-Howard, ditto.
Duke of Northumberland's, at Alnwick, Northumberland, and Sion-Houſe, Middleſex.
Lord Clive's, Claremont, Surry.
Earl of Inchiquin's, Cliefden-houſe, Buckinghamſhire.
Earl of Harrington's, at Peterſham, Surry.
The late counteſs of Leiceſter, Holkham Houſe, Norfolk.
Lord Deſpencer's, Mereworth Caſtle, Kent.
Lord Edgecumbe's, Mount Edgecumbe, Cornwall.
Lord Byron's, Newſtead Abbey, Nottinghamſhire.
Mr. Hoare's, Stourton Park, Wiltſhire.
The late marquis of Rockingham's, Wentworth Houſe, Yorkſhire.
Lord Petre's, Thornton, Eſſex.

It cannot be expected that I ſhould here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work; I ſhall, therefore, only touch upon the moſt conſiderable.

Briſtol is reckoned the ſecond city in England for wealth and populouſneſs; but in trade and ſhipping, Liverpool rivals, and perhaps ſurpaſſes it. The former ſtands

upon the north and ſouth ſides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a ſtone-bridge. The city is not well-built; but it is ſuppoſed to contain 15,000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen pariſh-churches, beſides ſeven or eight places of worſhip. On the north ſide of a large ſquare, called Queen's ſquare, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equeſtrian ſtatue of William the Third, there is a cuſtom-houſe, with a quay half a mile in length, ſaid to be one of the moſt commodious in England, for ſhipping and landing of merchants' goods. The exchange, wherein the merchants and traders meet, is of free-ſtone, and one of the beſt of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ouſe; it is populous, and ſurrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates, and five poſterns. Here are ſeventeen pariſh-churches, and a cathedral, or minſter, one of the fineſt Gothic buildings in Europe. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is the largeſt of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the weſt end are two towers, connected and ſupported by an arch which forms the weſt entrance, and is reckoned the largeſt Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted; and the front of the choir is adorned with ſtatues of the kings of England from William the Norman to Henry VI. and here are thirty-two ſtalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each conſiſting of one piece of alabaſter. Here is alſo a very neat Gothic chapter-houſe. Near the cathedral is the aſſembly-houſe, an elegant ſtructure, deſigned by the late earl of Burlington. This city has a ſtone bridge of five arches over the river Ouſe.

The city of Exeter was for ſome time the ſeat of the Weſt Saxon kings; and the walls which at this time encloſe it were built by king Athelſtan, who encompaſſed it with a ditch. It is one of the firſt cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent and the number of its inhabitants. It has ſix gates, and, including its ſuburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are ſixteen pariſh churches, beſides chapels, and five large meeting-houſes, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter in ſerges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerſeys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to the city by means of ſluices. There was a long and very ancient bridge over the river Ex, with houſes on both ſides; one half of it is now demoliſhed, and an arm turned to join it to the new bridge built on a line with the fore ſtreet.

The city of Glouceſter ſtands on a pleaſant hill, with houſes on every deſcent, and is clean and well-built, with the Severn on one ſide, a branch of which brings ſhips up to it. The cathedral is an ancient and magnificent ſtructure, and there are alſo five pariſh-churches. Here is a good ſtone bridge over the river, beſides a quay, a wharf, and a cuſtom-houſe: but the trade of this city is not ſo conſiderable as formerly.

Litchfield ſtands in a valley, three miles ſouth of the Trent, divided by a ſtream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was ſo completely repaired after the Reſtoration, that it is now one of the nobleſt Gothic ſtructures in England.

Cheſter is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a bridge that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the ſea. It has eleven pariſhes, and nine well-built churches. The ſtreets are generally even and ſpacious, and, croſſing one another in ſtraight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the ſouth ſide of the city to the caſtle, from whence there is a pleaſant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by the towers over the gates; from hence there is a proſpect of Flintſhire, and the mountains of Wales.

War-

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence, even in the time of the Romans. It ſtands upon a rock of free-ſtone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rock from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, the ſtreets ſpacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town. The principal ornament of the place is a caſtle belonging to the earl of Warwick, ſtanding upon the banks of the Avon, on a rock which riſes 40 feet perpendicularly above the level of that river; and adjoining to the caſtle is a fine terrace, 50 feet above the ſame level, from whence there is a beautiful and extenſive proſpect of the river, and of the country beyond. The apartments of the caſtle are adorned with many original pictures of Vandyke and other great maſters.

The city of Coventry is large and populous, has an handſome town-houſe, and twelve gates. Here is alſo a ſpacious market-place, with a croſs in the middle, 60 feet high, adorned with ſtatues of ſeveral kings of England as large as the life.

Saliſbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, ſituated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the weſt and ſouth, and by the Bourne on the eaſt. The ſtreets are generally ſpacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finiſhed in 1258, at the expence of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful ſpire of free-ſtone in the middle, which is 410 feet high. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. This church has a cloiſter, which is 150 feet ſquare, and of fine workmanſhip. The chapter-houſe, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one ſmall pillar in the centre, ſo much too weak in appearance for the ſupport of ſuch a prodigious weight, that the conſtruction of this building is thought one of the greateſt curioſities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from ſome natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated and much frequented. The ſeaſon for drinking the Bath waters are the ſpring and autumn: the ſpring ſeaſon begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn ſeaſon begins with September, and laſts till December, and ſome patients remain here all the winter. In the ſpring, this place is moſt frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleaſure, when at leaſt two-thirds of the company, conſiſting chiefly of perſons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amuſements of the place. In ſome ſeaſons there have been 8000 perſons at Bath, beſides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's-ſquare, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus, and Creſcent.

Nottingham is pleaſantly ſituated on the aſcent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the ſouth, and is navigable. It is one of the neateſt places in England, and has a conſiderable trade.

No nation in the world has ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniencies for the conſtruction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regular fortification in England), Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The royal hoſpital at Greenwich, for ſuperannuated ſeamen, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace for its magnificence and expence. In ſhort, every town in England is noted for ſome particular production or manufacture, to which its building and appearance are generally fitted; and though England contains many excellent and commodious ſea-ports, yet all have an immediate connection with London, the common centre of national commerce.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raiſed the Engliſh to be a great and powerful people. Hiſtorical reviews,

reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of commerce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expence to be defrayed by her ſubjects; and indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own ſyſtem into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes for the Engliſh trade. The Eaſt-India company owes to him its ſucceſs, and Britiſh America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies riſe under him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation greatly increaſed. It is not within my deſign to follow commerce through all her fluctuations. The nature of a geographical work requires only a general repreſentation of the ſtate of commerce; and, in this light, I flatter myſelf that I ſhall be able to treat of it with a proper degree of preciſion.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to have taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the Proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſtates, and made all the Popiſh powers our enemies. We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it became neceſſary to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours. We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become the great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conqueſt or plantation would fill the mother-country with gold and ſilver. The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced in a few years a great increaſe of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidered as the wealthy element; and by degrees a new kind of ſovereignty aroſe, called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power was at firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the newly diſcovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeized by him, he was maſter of the naval power of the two nations, with which he kept all the coaſts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raiſed at a vaſt expence for the conqueſt of England, was deſtroyed; which put almoſt an end to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure the inſolence of their maſters: they revolted; and after a ſtruggle, in which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of queen Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth. When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their ſyſtem of government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to form ſchemes of future proſperity, they eaſily perceived that as their territories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve themſelves only by that power, which is the conſequence of wealth; and that by a people whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by tranſportation of the products of one country into another. From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of commerce, which was for many years proſecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs perhaps never ſeen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impaſſable bogs erected themſelves into high and mighty ſtates, who ſet the greateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance was courted by the proudeſt, and whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt nations.

tions. By the eſtabliſhment of this ſtate there aroſe to England a new ally, and a new rival.

In the beginning of the ſeventeenth century, which ſeems to be the period deſtined for the change of the face of Europe, France began firſt to riſe into power, and, from defending her own provinces with difficulty and fluctuating ſucceſs, to threaten her neighbours with incroachments and devaſtations. Henry IV. having, after a long ſtruggle, obtained the crown, found it eaſy to govern nobles, exhauſted and wearied by a long civil war; and having compoſed the diſputes between the Proteſtants and Papiſts, ſo as to obtain at leaſt a truce for both parties, was at leiſure to accumulate treaſure, and raiſe forces, which he propoſed to have employed in a deſign of ſettling for ever the balance of Europe. Of this great ſcheme he lived not to ſee the vanity or feel the diſappointment. The French, however, were in this reign taught to know their own power; and the great deſigns of a king, whoſe wiſdom they had ſo long experienced, even though they were not brought to actual experiment, diſpoſed them to conſider themſelves as maſters of the deſtiny of their neighbours; and from that time he, who ſhall nicely examine their ſchemes and conduct, will find that they began to aſſume an air of ſuperiority to which they had never pretended before; and that they have been always employed more or leſs openly in ſchemes of dominion, though with frequent interruptions from domeſtic troubles.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced only 36,000 l. a year; at the Reſtoration they were let to farm for 400,000 l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconſiderable, were computed at about 100,000: at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now above ſix times that number. In thoſe days we had not only naval ſtores, but ſhips from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metals, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thouſand other things, came from France. Portugal ſupplied us with ſugars; all the produce of America was poured on us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt Indies at their own price. The legal intereſt of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our land 10 or 12 years purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall, and our ſhipping inferior to what belonged in the late war to the ſingle county of Lancaſter.

Great Britain is the moſt proper country for trade; as well from its ſituation as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation it produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities; as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, ſaffron, &c. Our corn ſometimes preſerves other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. We victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign veſſels. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible, is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes, houſehold-ſtuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is ſcarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is unneceſſary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſehold utenſils of

braſs, iron, and pewter, are alſo very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great eſteem.

Of the Britiſh commerce, that branch which we enjoyed excluſively, viz. the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the moſt advantageous. Yet ſince the ſeparation of the American States from Great Britain, the trade, the induſtry, and manufactures of the latter have continually increaſed. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and leſs tedious than thoſe from America. By ſupplying a greater variety of markets, the ſkill and ingenuity of our artiſans hath taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of riſing colonies, but of nations the moſt wealthy and the moſt refined; and our commercial ſyſtem, no longer reſting on the artificial baſis of monopoly, hath been rendered more ſolid as well as more liberal. Before the late war, the chief commodities exported to the colonies were wrought iron, ſteel, copper, pewter, lead, and braſs, cordage, hemp, ſail-cloth, ſhip-chandlery, painter's colours, millenery, hoſiery, haberdaſhery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, ſtuffs, flannels, Colcheſter bays, long ells, ſilks, gold and ſilver lace, Manchester goods, Britiſh, foreign, and Iriſh linens, earthen wares, grind-ſtones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, ſadlery, cabinet wares, ſeeds, cheeſe, ſtrong beer, ſmoking pipes, ſnuffs, wines, ſpirits, and drugs; Eaſt India goods, books, paper and leather.

The commodities exported from America to Great Britain, and other markets, were tobacco, rice, flour, biſcuit, wheat, beans, peas, oats, Indian corn, and other grain; honey, apples, cyder, and onions; ſalt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, veniſon, tongues, butter, and cheeſe; prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fiſh, and fiſh oil; furs and ſkins of wild beaſts, ſuch as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon; horſes, and live ſtock; timber planks, maſts, boards, ſtaves, ſhingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine; ſhips built for ſale; flax, flax-ſeed, and cotton; indigo, pot-aſh, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs; beſides many other commodities, peculiar to the climes and ſoil of different provinces. The following is a ſtate of the trade between Great Britain and the colonies, as it exiſted before the differences broke out between them, marking at the ſame time the commercial ſtrength and ſhipping of the colonies.

Colonies.	Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Great Britain.	Exports from the Colonies.
Hudſon's Bay	4	130	£. 16,000	£. 29,340
Labrador, American veſſels 120				49,050
Newfoundland (3000 boats)	380	20,560	273,400	345,000
Canada	34	408	105,000	105,000
Nova Scotia	6	72	26,500	38,000
New England	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode Iſland, Connecticut, and New Hampſhire	3	36	12,000	114,500
New York	30	330	531,000	526,000
Penſylvania	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North Carolina	34	408	18,000	68,450
South Carolina	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia	24	240	49,000	74,200
Eaſt Florida	2	24	7,000	
Weſt ditto	10	120	97,000	63,000
	1,078	28,910	3,370,900	3,924,206

The principal iſlands belonging to the Engliſh, in the Weſt Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montſerrat, the Bermudas, or Summer Iſlands, and the Bahama, or Lucayan Iſlands in the Atlantic ocean.

The Engliſh trade with their Weſt India iſlands conſiſts chiefly in ſugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and machineel planks, drugs and preſerves; for theſe the exports from England are oſnaburgs, a coarſe kind of linen, with which the Weſt Indians now clothe their ſlaves; linen of all ſorts, with broad cloth and kerſies, for the planters, their overſeers and families; ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies and houſhold ſervants; hats; red caps for their ſlaves of both ſexes; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts; gloves and millinery ware, perukes, laces for linen, woollen, and ſilks; ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron ware, as ſaws, files, axes, hatchets, chiſels, adzes, hoes, mattocs, gouges, planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, ſnuffs, and in general whatever is raiſed or manufactured in Great Britain; alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the hiſtory of the Eaſt India trade, within theſe twenty years paſt, and the company's concerns in that country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that, beſide their ſettlements on the coaſt of India, which they enjoy under certain reſtrictions by act of parliament; they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indoſtan, and the ambition or avarice of their ſervants and officers, acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as renders them the moſt formidable commercial republic (for ſo it may be called in its preſent ſituation) that has been known in the world ſince the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are choſen by the proprietors of the ſtock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that they amount annually to above three millions and a half ſterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining thoſe acquiſitions, are certainly very great; but after theſe are defrayed, the company not only cleared a vaſt ſum, but was able to pay to the government four hundred thouſand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for thoſe poſſeſſions that are territorial, and not commercial. This republic therefore cannot be ſaid to be independent; and it is hard to ſay what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired. For many years paſt, the company's ſervants have enriched themſelves more than the public.

This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woollen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw-ſilks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, ſalt petre for home conſumption: and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I ſhall now proceed to a conciſe view of the Engliſh trade to other countries, according to the lateſt and moſt authentic accounts.

To Turkey, England ſends in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdegris, ſpices, cochineal, and log-wood. She imports from thence raw-ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. annually, in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards diminiſhed through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead,

tin, fiſh, and Eaſt India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury; the balance of this trade in favour of England, is annually about 200,000l.

To Spain England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron, and braſs manufactures; haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany, and elſewhere, for the American colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whoſe fleets and armies have more than once ſaved her from deſtruction. Of late, her miniſtry have changed their ſyſtem, and have partly fallen in with the views of the houſe of Bourbon. They have eſtabliſhed courts, which are inconſiſtent with the treaties of Portugal and England, and defraud the Engliſh merchants of great part of their capitals, which they find it impoſſible to recover. They have likewiſe erected two Brazil companies; the one for Marenham and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco, greatly to the detriment of the Engliſh rights, but to their own national advantage. Before theſe events took place, the Engliſh trade to Portugal was highly beneficial. England ſent to that country almoſt the ſame kind of merchandizes as to Spain, and they received in return vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

To France, England ſends tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and ſometimes corn; and brings home a much greater value in wines, brandies, brocades, linen, cambrics, lace, velvets, and many other goods. But as there is now a commercial treaty ſubſiſting between England and France, time only can diſcover which country will have the advantage.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loſes upon the balance, 250,000l. ſterling yearly. To Germany, England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt India merchandize; and brings thence, linen, thread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000l. annually to the prejudice of England, but that diſadvantage is now leſſened, as moſt of the German princes find it their intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England; but the balance was lately diminiſhed by the great improvements of her American colonies, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron-works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are ſent there for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland conſumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hardware, lead, tin, ſalt, ſea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of trade may be eſtimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandize, ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions: and makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things. The balance is ſuppoſed to be in favour of England.

The acquiſitions which the Engliſh made upon the coaſt of Guinea, particularly their

their ſettlement at Senegal, opened new ſources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in poſſeſſion of Senegal, traded there for gold, ſlaves, hides, oſtrich feathers, bees-wax, millet, ambergris, and above all for that uſeful commodity gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to them by the late treaty of peace. At preſent, England ſends to the coaſt of Guinea, ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen and linen, iron, pewter, braſs, and hardware manufactures, lead-ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire-arms, gun-powder, and glaſs manufactures. And, beſides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately ſupplied the American colonies with negro ſlaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, Guinea grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Perſia, China, and other parts of Aſia, England ſends much foreign ſilver coin, and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from thoſe remote regions, muſlins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought ſilk, chintz; teas, porcelain, gold-duſt, coffee, ſaltpetre, and many other drugs. And ſo great a quantity of thoſe various merchandizes are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than compenſates fot the ſilver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the Eaſt India, South Sea, Hudſon's Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who propoſes to trade thither muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſes of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports have been computed at ſeven millions ſterling, and its imports at five, of which above one million is re-exported: ſo that if this calculation be true, England gains, annually, three millions ſterling in trade; but this is a point upon which the moſt experienced merchants, and ableſt calculators, differ. After all that has been ſaid, it muſt be acknowledged, that many exceptions lie to particular eſtimates. The improvements at home, in iron, ſilk, linen, cotton, and other manufactures, and the imports from America, muſt greatly diminiſh the Engliſh imports from abroad. On the other hand, ſome of the other European nations are making vigorous efforts for rivalling the Engliſh manufactures. Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one-ſixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions. The gold and ſilver of England is received from Portugal, Spain, Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa, but great part of this gold and ſilver we again export to Holland, and the Eaſt Indies; and it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs-bottle and drinking-glaſs occupying fifteen large houſes: its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular), are carried on in London and its neighbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given by the court and the

nobilily, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any coûntry in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of bays and ſerges, and alſo Exeter for ſerges and long-ells; and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camelots, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals, all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Mancheſter; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. I might mention here many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for ſome particular commodity, but the detail would become too bulky. I muſt not however diſmiſs this head, without obſerving the beautiful procelain and earthen ware that have of late years been manufactured in different places of England particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially thoſe of Axminſter, Wilton, and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable. Paper, which till very lately was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every part of the kingdom. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of ſalt-petre, which was firſt attempted in England by ſir Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt India Company: the ſucceſs of ſuch an undertaking would be of immenſe benefit, as well as ſecurity to the nation.

After all that has been ſaid, the ſeats of manufactures, and conſequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always follow thoſe places where living is cheap, and taxes are eaſy: for this reaſon, they have been obſerved of late to remove towards the northern counties, where proviſions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; and, probably, in a few years, the inland navigations which are completed in many parts of England, will make great alterations in its internal ſtate.

A ſhort View of the STOCKS, *or* PUBLIC FUNDS, *in England; with An Hiſtorical Account of the Eaſt India, the Bank, and the South Sea Companies.*

Theſe ſubjects are intimately connected; and all of them important in the political deſcription of England. Money is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſſaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the repreſentative of that ſtandard to ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to anſwer all the purpoſes of gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary to make this repreſentative of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit conſiſts in the facility afforded by the bank for converting the paper into ſpecie. The notes of the bank of England are of the ſame value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is puniſhed with death, as well as coining.

The

The method of depoſiting money in the bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no intereſt), is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only ſafer than money in the hands of the owner himſelf, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more eaſy conveyance: ſince a bank note for a very large ſum may be ſent by the poſt, and to prevent theft, may, without damage, be cut in two, and ſent at two ſeveral times. Or bills, called Bank poſt-bills, may be had by application at the bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent fraud, they being made payable to the order of the perſon who takes them out, at a certain number of days after ſight; which gives an opportunity to ſtop bills at the bank, if they ſhould be loſt, and prevents their being ſo eaſily negociated by ſtrangers as common bank-notes are: and whoever conſiders the hazard, the expence, and trouble, in ſending large ſums of gold and ſilver to and from diſtant places, muſt alſo regard this as a very important advantage. Beſides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are deſtroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of ſuch accident, and ſecurity being given, pay the money to the perſon who was in poſſeſſion of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of ſtock in theſe three particulars: 1. They are always of the ſame value; 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no intereſt; while *ſtocks* are a ſhare in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned.

By the word STOCK was originally meant, a particular ſum of money contributed to the eſtabliſhing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the perſon became a partner in that trade, and received a ſhare in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money advanced. But this term has been extended farther, to ſignify any ſum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain intereſt till the money is repaid. As the ſecurity both of the government and the public companies is eſteemed preferable to that of any private perſon, as ſtock is negociable and may always be readily transferred, as the intereſt is always punctually paid when due; ſo for theſe reaſons government may commonly borrow money cheaper than individuals, from whom there is often ſome danger of loſing both principal and intereſt.

Every fund being raiſed for a particular purpoſe and limited by parliament to a certain ſum, it follows, that when the fund is completed, no more ſtock can be bought; though ſhares, already purchaſed, may be transferred from one perſon to another. This being the caſe, there is frequently a great diſproportion between the original value of the ſhares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than ſellers, a perſon who is indifferent about ſelling, will not part with his ſhare without a conſiderable profit to himſelf; and on the contrary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations were neceſſary to give our readers ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice called *Stock-jobbing*, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock; againſt which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by ſpreading rumours, and fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell it, and conſequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference be-

tween

tween the price the ſtock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000l. ſtock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this caſe is called the Bull, and the ſeller the Bear; one is for raiſing or toſſing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the Stock.

Beſides theſe, there is another ſet of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government whenever any new money is to be borrowed. Theſe indeed are not fictitious, but really buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, by pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, by uſing the forementioned ſet of men as their inſtruments, and other like practices, they are enabled to raiſe or lower the ſtocks one or two per cent. at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above onother, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per ann. muſt be more valuable than an annuity with government ſecurity, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum; and conſequently ſuch ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than ſuch an annuity. Though it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch ſo much money at market as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of government; and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt India, the Bank, and the South Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt India company, as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

EAST INDIA COMPANY.] Of the above the Eaſt India company is the principal. The firſt idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has ſince undergone great alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50l. ſterling; and its capital only 369,891l. 5s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares were doubled, and conſequently, each became of 100l. value, and the capital, 739,782l. 10s. to which capital, if 963,639l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock amounts to 1,703,402l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by ſir Joſiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indoſtan, damped the ardour of the public to ſupport it; ſo that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected, under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public-ſpirited meaſures of king William, by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon ad-

vancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a great intereſt both in the parliament and nation; and the two were united in the year 1702. In 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent, by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without any additional intereſt; for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was grantnd to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt-Indies." A farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730, their privileges were extended for thirty-three years, and the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade; and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 1000l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thouſand pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, ſix a year, for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200l. a year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, a committee of buying, a committee of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of warehouſe, a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of lawſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, computed to be 282,000 ſquare miles, and containing 30 millions of people, muſt be neceſſarily attended with a proportionable increaſe of trade *: and this, joined to the diſſenſions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late greatly engaged the attention of the legiſlature. A reſtriction has occaſionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From a report of the committee, in 1773, appointed by parliament on India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the ſpace of forty-ſeven years and a half, divided the ſum of 12,000,000l. or above 280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per cent. and that at the laſt mentioned period it appeared that, beſides the above dividend, the capital ſtock of the company had been increaſed 180,000l. Conſiderable alterations were made in the affairs and conſtitution of the Eaſt India company by an act paſſed in 1773, intitled, "An act for eſtabliſhing certain rules and orders, for the future management of the affairs of the Eaſt India company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors ſhould, in future, be elected for four years: ſix members annually; but none to hold their ſeats longer than four years. That no perſon ſhould vote at the election of the directors, who had not poſſeſſed their ſtock twelve months. That the ſtock of qualification ſhould, inſtead of 500l. as it had formerly been, be 1000l. That the mayor's court at Calcutta ſhould in future be confined

* According to liſts laid before the houſe of commons, the Company employed 110 ſhips and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe in carrying cargoes to and from	——	70 Ships	and 7130 men,
		6 Packets	— 320
In the country trade and from China	— —	34 Grabs	— 720

to

to ſmall mercantile cauſes, to which only its juriſdiction extended before the territorial acquiſition. That in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one be eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a chief juſtice and three puiſne judges; and that theſe judges be appointed by the crown. That a ſuperiority be given to the preſidency of Bengal, over the other preſidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal ſhould be veſted in the crown. The ſalaries of the judges were alſo fixed, at 8000l. to the chief juſtice, and 6000l. a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were fixed, the firſt at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act, and an immenſe power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto reſulted to the company: on the contrary, the new eſtabliſhed court of juſtice has paid ſo little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the uſages of that country, as to occaſion the moſt alarming diſcontents among the natives, and great diſſatisfaction even among the company's own ſervants.

In the month of November 1783, Mr. Fox, then ſecretary of ſtate, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company under the ſuppoſition of the incompetency of the directors, and the preſent inſolvent ſtate of the company. The intention of the bill was, to veſt the whole powers of the Eaſt India company in *ſeven directors*, whoſe names were moved by the ſecretary of ſtate, and adopted by the houſe of commons. They were to hold their offices four years, removeable, like the twelve judges, by an addreſs of either houſe of parliament, and not by any other power: and *nine gentlemen*, moved for and adopted in the ſame manner, were to aſſiſt them in managing the commercial affairs of the company.

The effect of this was, to veſt in theſe ſeven directors the whole influence of the offices of every kind both in India and at home, belonging to the company; and the whole influence ariſing from their tranſactions in the purchaſe of goods for exportation, furniſhing ſhiping, ſtores, and recruits; the influence ariſing from the method of ſelling their goods, by bringing forward or keeping back goods at the ſales, or giving indulgencies as to payments, ſo as to accommodate thoſe who were meant to be favoured; the influence ariſing from the favour they may ſhew to thoſe who are now in England, and have left debts or effects in India, as to the mode of bringing home and recovering their fortunes; the influence of contracts of all kinds in India; of promotions, from ſtep to ſtep; of favour in the inland trade; of intimidation with reſpect to every perſon now there; the influence upon foreign companies, or foreign ſtates, who have eſtabliſhments in that country,—who, in return, may have the means of acting upon individuals in Britain; the influence upon the native princes of India, ſome of whom it was ſaid had already found the way of procuring the elections of members of parliament; and many other means of influence, which it is impoſſible to foreſee, or to trace.

This power, was not, indeed, taken from the crown; but it was to be placed in new hands, independent, during four years, equally of the crown and of the people. It was ſuppoſed neceſſarily to follow, that the whole power and patronage of India would be veſted in the members of adminiſtration, not only during four years, but as long as India ſhall belong to this kingdom. The bill paſſed the commons, but an oppoſition was formed againſt it in the houſe of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men. After long debates it was rejected by a majority of 19 peers. The conſequence of this was the downfall of the miniſtry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

Various attempts for a new bill were afterwards made by Mr. Pitt and the new miniſtry; but without ſucceſs, which occaſioned, with other diſputes, a diſſolution of the houſe of commons.

However,

However, a new bill paſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſions, 1784, by which three things were intended. Firſt, the eſtabliſhing a power of control in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the reſt of the empire. Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's ſervants in India, in order to remedy the evils that have prevailed there. Thirdly, the providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhall continue in the practice of crimes which have brought diſgrace upon the country.

Accordingly ſix perſons are to be nominated by the king as commiſſioners for the affairs of India, of which one of the ſecretaries of ſtate and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being ſhall be two, and the preſident is to have the caſting vote, if equally divided. New commiſſioners are to be appointed at the pleaſure of the crown. This board is to ſuperintend, direct, and control all acts, operations, and concerns, which in any wiſe relate to the civil or military government or revenues of the Britiſh territorial poſſeſſions in the Eaſt-Indies. They are ſworn to execute the ſeveral powers and truſts repoſed in them without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any perſon whatever. The court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and reſolutions of themſelves and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and inſtructions propoſed to be ſent abroad, for their approbation or alteration. None to be ſent until after ſuch previous communication on any pretence whatſoever. The directors are ſtill to appoint the ſervants abroad, but the king hath a power by his ſecretary of ſtate to recall the governors and members of the councils, and all inferior magiſtrates. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal a control over the other preſidencies in all points which relate to any tranſactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces and revenues; but the council of Bengal are ſubjected to the direction of the company at home, and in all caſes, except thoſe of immediate danger and neceſſity, reſtrained from acting without orders received from hence.

Another object of the bill is the redreſs of the grievances of the natives of India; to provide for the payment of the debts of the nabob of Arcot, which are a burthen on his country, diſcriminating at the ſame time thoſe which have been juſtly incurred from thoſe which have been forced upon him by the injuſtice and extortion of Engliſh oppreſſors; to aſcertain the indeterminate rights and pretenſions on which ſo many differences have ariſen between him and the rajah of Tanjore, fomented by Europeans, for the ſupport of their own intereſted views; and to deliver the zemindars, and other native landholders of India, from oppreſſion, and ſecure to them their poſſeſſions, by permanent rules of moderation and juſtice.

A material part of this bill is directed alſo againſt the abuſes ſaid to have prevailed in the civil and military departments, enjoining a thorough reviſal of their eſtabliſhment; together with a ſuppreſſion of ſuch places as are found to be uſeleſs, and of ſuch expences as may be conveniently avoided. And, in order to prevent any deluſive ſhew of retrenchment in the preſent motion, or any deviation from the wiſe ſyſtem of œconomy at a future period, this reform is directed to be conſtantly ſubmitted, in its whole ſtate and progreſs, to parliament.

Cadets and writers have hitherto been ſent to India in ſuch numbers, as to remain a burthen upon the eſtabliſhments of the company. No more of theſe are now to be ſent out, till their number is reduced within the proper complement, which is not to be exceeded in future.

The recommendations alſo of the directors under which thoſe ſervants of the company who had an intereſt in this country roſe rapidly, to the prejudice of induſtrious and meritorious men, are now rendered ineffectual; and a ſyſtem is eſtabliſhed, of ſucceſſion by ſeniority: leaving, however, to the councils abroad, that power which is indiſpenſable to all executive government, of bringing forward

(for reaſons by them to be aſſigned) any perſons of extraordinary merit or capacity, to thoſe ſituations in which they may effectually ſerve their country. From this regulation neceſſarily flows a limitation of the age of perſons entering upon the line of Eaſt India ſervice from fifteen to twenty-two years; for, if no proviſion was made to prevent children being enrolled on the eſtabliſhment, they might be brought by ſucceſſion to many important employments before they arrived at manhood: or, on the other hand, perſons advanced in years might be appointed to the ſtations of young men, for the ſole purpoſe of repairing diſſipated fortunes; and that without the proſpect of being able to do it in the courſe of years by regular advancement and legal profit. On the ſame ground, and on that of preventing, as far as poſſible, the miſchief of tainting the government of that continent, by introducing into it the parties of Great Britain, all perſons who have reſided five years in Europe, ſince their return from India, are precluded from any farther re-appointment to offices in that country; with the exception, which juſtice requires for a certain time, to ſuch perſons as are now here, or have left India without the knowledge of this proviſion.

The laſt body of regulations for the company's ſervants in India applies to offences committed in that country.

Security has been derived to Indian delinquents, from the circumſtance of their offences being committed within the territories of Indian princes, ſo as not to come within the cognizance of the Britiſh government. This act provides againſt further evaſions of this miſchievous nature, by declaring the offence equally puniſhable in whatever territory of India it is committed. Under the ſpecious name of *Preſents*, the groſſeſt extortion has frequently been practiſed; and all attempts to draw a line having proved nugatory, nothing remained but to put an entire ſtop to the practice. The act, therefore, of receiving preſents, is declared to be in itſelf extortion, and puniſhable by law accordingly. Of the ſame kind with theſe are the regulations againſt diſobedience of orders; for groſs inſtances of which we need not go far back into their hiſtory: and alſo againſt the bargaining for offices; a miſchievous practice in all countries, but moſt ſo in that, where the means of plunder are great. Both of theſe offences are accordingly pronounced miſdemeanours: and proviſion is made, that the guilty perſons ſhall not compound for them with the company, nor ever be reſtored to appointments in their ſervice. Two reſtrictions more remain: one of them binds collectors and receivers, by oath, from accepting any private gratuity, over and above the legal tribute; and the other guards againſt illicit correſpondence with the enemies of the company, and of Great Britain.

To prevent, or more eaſily puniſh, the miſconduct of the ſervants of the company, every perſon returning from India is, within the ſpace of two calendar months after his return, to deliver in upon oath, before the barons of the exchequer, an inventory of all lands, tenements, goods, debts, monies, ſecurities for money, &c. &c. ſpecifying what part thereof was not acquired or purchaſed by property acquired in conſequence of his reſidence in the Eaſt-Indies. A duplicate is to be given to the court of directors, for the inſpection of the proprietors of the company; and in caſe of a complaint within three years after the delivery of the inventory, that it is evaſive, inſufficient, or falſe, then the perſon is to be examined upon oath, in the exchequer, to ſuch interrogatories as the court ſhall think fit, or be impriſoned; and if he hath been guilty of any omiſſion or concealment to the value of 2000 l. all his real and perſonal eſtate ſhall be forfeited, one moiety to the king, and the other to the united company. Perſons arriving from India before the firſt of January, 1787, are exempted from this clauſe to deliver ſuch an inventory. Any perſon who ſhall within the ſpace of three years make diſcovery, on oath, of any part of the eſtate or property, real or perſonal, of any perſon delivering ſuch an inventory,

tory, which ſhall have been concealed, ſhall, upon conviction of the perſon, be allowed ten per cent. of the value of the eſtate or effects ſo diſcovered. It is alſo, by this bill, lawful for the attorney-general, or court of directors, to exhibit an information againſt any perſon guilty of the crime of extortion or other miſdemeanors committed in the Eaſt Indies, after the 1ſt of January, 1785, which information is to be tried by commiſſioners ſelected from both houſes of parliament. The lords are to ballot for twenty-ſix of their houſe, and the commons for forty of their number; their names are again to be put into a box to be drawn out by lot, in preſence of three judges and of the parties, and the perſon againſt whom the information hath been exhibited ſhall have the liberty to challenge as the names are drawn out, or the firſt four names of the peers, and the firſt ſix names of the commons which ſhall be drawn out, without challenging, ſhall be returned by the ſaid judges to the lord chancellor, to inſert their names with thoſe of the three judges in a *ſpecial commiſſion*, for them or any ſeven of them, of whom one of the judges always to be one, to hear and determine every ſuch information, and pronounce judgment thereon; ſuch judgment to be effectual and concluſive to all intents and purpoſes whatſoever.

Various opinions are formed concerning this famous bill; ſome contend that its principle and plan are fair, equitable, and honourable: a proteſt was entered againſt it in the houſe of lords, ſigned by five peers.

Notwithſtanding the regulations of this bill, it has been ſuſpected that they will produce no very material effect, unleſs vigorous meaſures be taken to enforce them. But it may be fairly preſumed, that the proſecutions now carrying on (1790) may be productive of ſalutary conſequences.

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England; in conſideration of the loan of 1,200,000 l. granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them to trade, in any goods or merchandize; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament, paſſed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were impowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171 l. 10s. It was then alſo enacted that the Bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal, and not a real eſtate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling Bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the Bank within ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days, and that it ſhould be felony, without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the Bank, or any Bank note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch notes.

By another act, paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343 l. and they then advanced 400,000 l. more to the government; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000 l.

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000 l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000 l. and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in their capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in queſtion; but

alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with the intereſt of five per cent. per annum, for the money ſo omitted to be paid: and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this, the Bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent, and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the Bank reduced to 1,600,000 l. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000 l. at 3 per cent, which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000 l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800 l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39.442 l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the farther ſum of 1,000,000 l. at 4 per cent. into the exchequer, for exchequer bills iſſued upon the credit of the duties ariſing from the malt and land-tax; in conſideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800 l. the intereſt of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

In order to enable them to circulate the ſaid exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation: the nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening the ſum employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them), or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows:

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the Bank pays the ſubſcriber 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſuch ſum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the caſe), receive ſix and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500l. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account:

The

The Bank receives from the government, for the advance of a million, — — — —	£. 30,000
The Bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance, 100,000l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more —	6,500
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is — —	23,500

This holds, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

The company of the Bank are allowed by government very conſiderable ſums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. They make dividends of the profits half-yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when thoſe who have occaſion for their money may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal *.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

SOUTH SEA COMPANY,.] During the long war with France, in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, they received tickets inſtead of money, and were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men at a diſcount of 40l. and ſometimes 50l. per cent. By this and other means the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them for the purpoſe of carrying on a trade to the South Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the Fiſhery, &c."

Though this company ſeem formed for the ſake of commerce, the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war, about making any ſettlement on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, on any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with Negroes; of which this company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other ſums were lent to the government, in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and the company advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that they might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling them to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. they might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo empowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations, under

* The Bank company is ſuppoſed to have twelve millions of circulating paper.

their

their common ſeal, on the credit of their capital ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

The fatal South Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation, when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South Sea bubble was projected. The pretence was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on a trade to the South Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhewing the advantages of this deſign. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum: which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived. But the conſequences of this infamous ſcheme are too well known; moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property; ſome of them had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed, they ought to have oppoſed and prevented it.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,651,103l. 8s. 1d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors, ſhould be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which be converted into a joint-ſtock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called the New South Sea annuities; and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock, attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South Sea company. That the accomptant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and Midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſonbly divide without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were diſcharged; and the South-Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company; and that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered, and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in

the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000 l. the deputy-governor 3000 l. and a director 2000 l. in the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500 l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000 l. two votes; if 3000 l. three votes, and if 5000 l. four votes.

The Eaſt India company, the Bank of England, and the South Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the Million Bank, whoſe capital is only one million, conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long Exchequer orders.

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders: but the South-Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the ſums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different ſtocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*, ſo when a perſon, who is not acquainted with tranſactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of ſtocks, where Bank ſtock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto 134 a 134½, South Sea ditto, 97½, &c. he is to underſtand that 100 l. of thoſe reſpective ſtocks ſell at ſuch a time for thoſe ſeveral ſums.

In comparing the prices of the different ſtocks one with another, it muſt be remembered, that the intereſt due on them from the time of the laſt payment, is taken into the current price, and the ſeller never receives any ſeparate conſideration for it, except in the caſe of India bonds, where the intereſt due is calculated to the day of the ſale, and paid by the purchaſer, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the intereſt on the different ſtocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly underſtood, would lead a perſon, not well acquainted with them, into conſiderable miſtakes in his computation of their value; ſome always having a quarter's intereſt due in them more than others, which makes an appearance of a conſiderable difference in the price, when in reality there is none at all. Thus, for inſtance, Old South Sea annuities ſell for 84½ l. or 85 l. 10 s. while New South Sea annuities fetch only 84¼ l, or 84 l. 15 s. though each of them produce the ſame annual ſum of 3 per cent.; but the old annuities have a quarter's intereſt more due on them than the new annuities, which amount to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two cauſes that will always make one ſpecies of annuities ſell ſomewhat lower than another, though of the ſame real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall capital, and there not being, for that reaſon, ſo many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the capital is larger; becauſe it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular ſpecies of annuity the capital of which is the ſmalleſt.

A ſtock may likewiſe be affected by the court of Chancery; for if that court ſhould order the money which is under their direction to be laid out in any particular ſtock, that ſtock, by having more purchaſers, will be raiſed to a higher price than any other of the like value.

By what has been ſaid, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the intereſt of the nation depend on the ſupport of the public funds, of which more particulars will be given under the article REVENUES. While the annuities are regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people, foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be intereſted in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandiſe, and Great Britain can never want caſh to carry her ſchemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but

but here it is eſtabliſhed on the intereſts of both prince and people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity: for however lovely and engaging honeſty may be in other reſpects, intereſt in money-matters will always obtain confidence; becauſe many people pay great regard to their intereſt who have but little veneration for virtue.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitution as that of England, ſeems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved his miſtake; for by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the Engliſh conſtitution has exiſted for above 500 years. It muſt be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and ſome interruptions; but its principles are the ſame with thoſe deſcribed by the above mentioned hiſtorian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern anceſtors of the Engliſh nation. On the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the ſame as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve him, were diſtributed among them; and the whole was conſidered as the common property which they were to unite in defending againſt all invaders. Freſh adventurers coming over, under ſeparate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and thoſe leaders, at laſt, aſſumed the title of kings over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more reſpectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increaſe their power, which was ſtill confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, ſheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that maſter-piece of judicial polity, the ſubdiviſion of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the ſubdiviſion of hundreds into tythings, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England; and overſeers were choſen to direct them for the good of the whole. The ſheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, was added the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but by the earlieſt records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay; and here we have the original of Engliſh juries. It is certain that they were in uſe among the earlieſt Saxon colonies, their inſtitution being aſcribed by biſhop Nicholſon to Woden himſelf, their great legiſlator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all thoſe countries which adopted the feodal ſyſtem, as in Germany, France, and Italy; which had a tribunal compoſed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find mention made of them ſo early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was no action ſo criminal as not to be compenſated for by money *. A mulct was impoſed in proportion to the guilt, even if it was the murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it he purchaſed his pardon. Thoſe barbarous uſages ſeem to have ceaſed ſoon after the Saxons were converted to Chriſtianity; and caſes of murder and felony were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, hereditary, though in fact it came to be rendered ſo through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preſerving the regularity of government. Even

* Called by the Saxons GUELT, and thence the word *guilty* in criminal trials.

eſtates

tates and honours were not ſtrictly hereditary, till they were made ſo by William the Norman. That prince, though he made conſiderable innovations in the Engliſh conſtitution, and is generally ſtyled the Conqueror, in conſequence of the victory which he obtained over Harold at the battle of Haſtings, yet before he aſcended the throne he made a compact with his new ſubjects, by his coronation oath, the ſame with that of the Saxon kings. His adminiſtration was, however, tyrannical in a very great degree, and he was guilty of many acts of violence and cruelty; but the conſtitution eſtabliſhed under him in this kingdom was no abſolute monarchy, rather an ingraftment of the feudal tenures and other cuſtoms of Normandy upon the ancient Saxon laws of Edward the Confeſſor. He more than once ſwore to maintain thoſe laws; and in the fourth year of his reign confirmed them in parliament; yet not without great alterations, to which the whole legiſlature agreed, by a more complete introduction of the ſtrict feudal law, as it was practiſed in Normandy; which produced a different political ſyſtem, and changed both power and property in many reſpects; though the firſt principles of that law, and general notions of it, had been in uſe among the Engliſh ſome ages before. It muſt, indeed, be admitted, that William divided many of the Engliſh eſtates among his Norman followers, under pretence that their former owners had fought againſt him at the battle of Haſtings: and he portioned out the lands into knights fees, an indetermined number of which formed a barony, and thoſe baronies were given to the great noblemen who compoſed what is called the King's Court, or Court of Peers, from every baron being a peer, or equal to another. In this court all civil, as well as military matters, and the proportion of knights and men, which each baron was to raiſe for the king's ſervice, were ſettled. Even biſhopricks were converted into lay baronies, and were obliged, as others, to furniſh their quotas. In many reſpects, the firſt princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon conſtitution; but the attempt was to no purpoſe. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints againſt the crown, and after much war and bloodſhed, the famous charter of Engliſh liberties, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly obtained from king John, and confirmed by his ſon Henry III. who ſucceeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after much blood had been ſpilt, the commons of England were repreſented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; ſo entirely had the barons engroſſed the diſpoſal of property.

The preciſe year when the houſe of commons was formed is not known; but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we ſhall not enter into any diſputes about their ſpecific powers *. We therefore now proceed to deſcribe the CONSTITUTION as it ſtands at preſent.

In all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which the right of legiſlation belongs; and which, by the ſingular conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

* Judge Blackſtone maintains, that a great or general council of the realm hath been held immemorially under the ſeveral names of *michel-ſynoth*, or great council; *michel-gemote*, or great meeting; and more frequently *wittena gemote*, or the meeting of wiſe men. It was alſo ſtyled in Latin *commune concilium regni*, and ſometimes *communitas regni Angliæ*. We have inſtances of its meeting to order the affairs of the kingdom, to make new laws and amend the old, ſo early as the reign of Ina king of the Weſt Saxons, A.D. 725, Offa, king of the Mercians, and Ethelbert king of Kent, in their ſeveral realms of the heptarchy. The MIRROUR informs us, that king Alfred ordained for a perpetual uſage, that theſe councils ſhould meet twice a year or oftener if need be. Our ſucceeding Saxon and Daniſh monarchs held frequent councils of this ſort, as appears from their reſpective codes of laws. There is alſo no doubt but theſe great councils were held regularly under the firſt princes of the Norman line, for in Edward the Third's time, an act of parliament made in the reign of William the Conqueror, was pleaded in the caſe of the Abbey of St. Edmundſbury, and judicially allowed by the court.

OF THE KING.] The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king or queen; for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon entitled to it is immediately intruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is: "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary; and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf; but that the right of inheritance may from time to time be changed, or limited by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal ſucceſſion, by its being transferred from the houſe of Tudor to that of Stuart it may be proper to inform him, that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without iſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the other iſſue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen: whoſe eldeſt daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland; king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the Firſt, was the lineal deſcendant from that alliance. So that in his perſon, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors from the Norman invaſion downward; he being indiſputably the lineal heir of William I. And what is ſtill more remarkable, in his perſon alſo centered the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been ſuſpended from the Norman invaſion till his ſucceſſion; for Margaret the ſiſter of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, ſuppoſing it not aboliſhed by the Conqueſt, reſided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the reſtorer of the Saxon line. But it muſt be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had ſons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offſpring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the lineal deſcendant; and therefore united in his perſon every poſſible claim by hereditary right, to the Engliſh as well as Scottiſh throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates or repreſentative body of the nation, declared, that the miſconduct of James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Proteſtant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception, or preference to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the Proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being proteſtants; and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from whom the heirs of the crown deſcend *.

The

* A Chronology, of Engliſh KINGS, from the time that this country became united under one monarch, in the perſon of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the iſland, the Saxon and Angles having, about four centuries before, ſubdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.		
800	Egbert	Saxon Princes.
838	Ethelwulf	
857	Ethelbald	
860	Ethelbert	

866 Ethelred

The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new caſe in politics, which had never before happened in our hiſtory; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeaſance of the right of ſucceſſion, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houſes of parliament: it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being; for, in a full aſſembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both houſes came to this reſolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of Jeſuits, and other wicked perſons, having violated the

Began to reign.		
866	Ethelred	Saxon Princes.
871	Alfred the Great	
901	Edward the Elder	
925	Athelſtan	
941	Edmund	
946	Edred	
955	Edwy	
959	Edgar	
975	Edward the Martyr	
978	Etheldred II.	
1016	Edmund II. or Ironſide	
1017	Canute, king of Denmark	Daniſh.
1035	Harold	
1039	Hardicanute	
1041	Edward the Confeſſor	Saxon.
1065	Harold	
1066	William I.	(Commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.
1087	William II.	Sons of the Conqueror.
1100	Henry I.	
1135	Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela.	
1154	Henry II.	(Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empreſs Maud, and her ſecond huſband Geoffrey Plantagenet.
1189	Richard I.	Sons of Henry II.
1199	John	
1216	Henry III. ſon of John.	
1272	Edward I. ſon of Henry III.	
1307	Edward II. ſon of Edward I.	
1327	Edward III. ſon of Edward II.	
1377	Richard II. grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon, the Black Prince.	
1399	Henry IV.	Son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon to Edward III. — Houſe of Lancaſter.
1413	Henry V. ſon of Henry IV.	
1422	Henry VI. ſon of Henry V.	
1461	Edward IV. deſcended from Edward III. by Lionel his 3d ſon.	Houſe of York.
1483	Edward V. ſon of Edward IV.	
1483	Richard III. brother of Edward IV.	
1485	Henry VII.	(Tudor ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the houſe of Lancaſter. — Houſe of Tudor in whom were united the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII's marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.
1509	Henry VIII. ſon of Henry VII.	
1547	Edward VI. ſon of Henry VIII.	
1553	Mary	Daughters of Henry VIII.
1558	Elizabeth	
1603	James I.	Great grandſon of James IV. king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. And firſt of the Stuart family in England.
1625	Charles I. ſon of James I.	
Commonwealth, and protectorate of Cromwell.		
1649	Charles II.	Sons of Charles I.
1685	James II.	

the fundamental laws; and having withdrawn himſelf out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of ſucceſſion: which from the Norman invaſion had laſted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almoſt 900.

Though in ſome points the revolution was not ſo perfect as might have been wiſhed, yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and underſtood, and the rights of the ſubject more explicitly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any other period of the Engliſh hiſtory. It is worthy of obſervation, that the convention avoided with great wiſdom the extremes into which the viſionary theories of ſome zealous republicans would have led them. They held that the miſconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and not to an actual ſubverſion, or total diſſolution of the government. They, therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a conſequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive magiſtrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. Thus the conſtitution was kept entire; which, upon every ſound principle of government, muſt otherwiſe have fallen to pieces, had ſo principal and conſtituent a part as the royal authority been aboliſhed, or even ſuſpended.

Hence it is eaſy to collect, that the title to the crown is at preſent hereditary, though not quite ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common ſtock or anceſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be derived, is alſo different. Formerly the common ſtock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in Jame I's time, the two common ſtocks united, and ſo continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inheritance was veſted by the new king and parliament. Formerly the deſcent was abſolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any reſtriction; but now, upon the new ſettlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to ſuch heirs only, of the body of the princeſs Sophia, as are Proteſtant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Proteſtants.

In this due medium conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms. The extremes, between which it ſteers, have been thought each of them to be deſtructive to thoſe ends for which ſocieties were formed, and are kept on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is elected by the people, and may by the expreſs proviſion of the laws be depoſed (if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely

Began to reign.		
1688	William III. and Mary	nephew and ſon-in-law of James II. Daughters of James II. in whom ended the Proteſtant line of Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his ſuppoſed infant ſon (the late Pretender), who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next Proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James, at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles, who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the Elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia, and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament, expreſly made in favour of his mother.
1702	Anne	
1714	George I.	houſe of Hanover.
1727	George II. ſon of George I.	
1760	George III. grandſon of George II.	

difficult.

difficult. On the other hand, divine indefeaſible hereditary right, when joined with the doctrine of unlimited paſſive obedience, is of all conſtitutions the moſt thoroughly ſlaviſh and dreadful. But when ſuch an hereditary right, as our laws have created and veſted in the royal ſtock, is interwoven with thoſe liberties which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject, this union will form a conſtitution, in theory the moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and, in all probability, will prove in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtitution it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath at the coronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops, or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people; who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay,* Will you ſolemnly promiſe and ſwear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The king or queen ſhall ſay,* I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop.* Will you to your power cauſe law and juſtice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or Queen.* I will.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop.* Will you to the utmoſt of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the Proteſtant reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? And will you preſerve unto the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the law do or ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them?—*King or queen.* All this I promiſe to do.

"*After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy goſpels, ſha'l ſay,* The things which I have here before promiſed, I will perform and keep: ſo help me God. *And then kiſs the book.*"

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcribed by our laws: and we may obſerve, that in the king's part, in this original contract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latter of theſe three branches, we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Anne c. 8. two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England, which enact, the former, that every king at his ſucceſſion ſhall take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the Proteſtant religion, and Preſbyterian church-government in Scotland: the latter that, at his coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to preſerve the ſettlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of the power of the crown, is the greateſt monarch reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits, or the boundaries preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can make no new laws, nor raiſe any new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles, &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill,

bill, though it had paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe. He poſſeſſes the right of chuſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſhold, and the church; and in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived.

OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, or general councils, in ſome ſhape, are of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this iſland, and coeval with the kingdom itſelf. Blackſtone, in his valuable Commentaries, ſays, "it is generally agreed, that in the main the conſtitution of parliament, as it now ſtands, was marked out ſo long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the great charter granted by that prince; wherein he promiſes to ſummon all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, lords, and greater barons perſonally; and all other tenants in chief, under the crown by the ſheriff and bailiffs to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to aſſeſs aids and ſcutages when neceſſary. And this conſtitution hath ſubſiſted, in fact, at leaſt from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being ſtill extant writs of that date to ſummon knights, citizens, and burgeſſes to parliament."

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal (who ſit together with the king in one houſe), and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſaprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlature therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers, who repreſent the body of the Scotch nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachment of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly,

cordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the kingdom as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives *. In a free ſtate, every man, who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be, in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived, that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives, which it is impracticable to perform in perſon: repreſentatives, choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation †. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scotch 45; in all 558. And every member, though choſen by one particular diſtrict, when elected and returned ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to ſerve his conſtituents, but alſo the commonwealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due, unleſs in what relates to their own privileges.

The power and juriſdiction of parliament, ſays ſir Edward Coke, is ſo tranſcendant and abſolute, that it cannot be confined, either for cauſes or perſons, within any bounds. It hath ſovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that abſolute deſpotic power, which muſt in all governments reſide ſomewhere, is entruſted by the conſtitution of theſe kingdoms. All miſchiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the ſucceſſion to the crown; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the eſtabliſhed religion of the land; as was done in a variety of inſtances, in the reign of king Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves; as was done by the act of union, and the ſeveral ſtatutes for triennial and ſeptennial elections. It can do every thing that is not naturally impoſſible; and therefore ſome have not ſcrupled to call its power by a figure

* This muſt be underſtood with ſome limitation. Thoſe who are poſſeſſed of land-eſtates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have moſt of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which ſend no members to parliament; and of thoſe towns which do ſend members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thouſand perſons of great perſonal property, have, therefore, no repreſentatives. Indeed, the inequality and defectiveneſs of the repreſentation, has been juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt imperfections in the Engliſh conſtitution. The duration of parliaments being extended to ſeven years, has alſo been viewed in the ſame light.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is adminiſtered to every perſon before they poll; "I do ſwear (or, being one of the people called Quakers, do ſolemnly affirm) I have not received or had by myſelf, or any perſon whatſoever in truſt for me, or for my uſe and benefit, directly or indirectly, any ſum or ſums of money, office, place or employment, gift or reward, or any promiſe or ſecurity for any money, office, or employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election: and that I have not before been polled at this election. So help me God."

rather

rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. But then their power, however great, was given them in truſt, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of juſtice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is moſt eſſential to the liberties of the kingdom, that ſuch members be delegated to this important truſt, as are moſt eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treaſurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament:" and, as ſir Matthew Hale obſerves, this being the higheſt and greateſt court, over which none other can have juriſdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a miſgovernment ſhould any way fall upon it, the ſubjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.

In order to prevent the miſchiefs that might ariſe, by placing this extenſive authority in hands that are either incapable, or elſe improper, to manage it, it is provided, that no one ſhall ſit or vote in either houſe of parliament unleſs he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted that no member ſhall vote or ſit in either houſe, till he hath, in the preſence of the houſe, taken the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration; and ſubſcribed and repeated the declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, the invocation of ſaints, and the ſacrifice of the maſs. To prevent dangers that may ariſe to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great Britain, even though he be naturalized, ſhall be capable of being a member of either houſe of parliament.

Some of the moſt important privileges of the members of either houſe are, privilege of ſpeech, of perſon, of their domeſtics, and of their lands and goods. As to the firſt, privilege of ſpeech, it is declared by the ſtatute of 1 W. & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of ſpeech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or queſtioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of ſpeech is particularly demanded of the king in perſon, by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of perſon, ſervants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but alſo from legal arreſts, and ſeizures by proceſs from the courts of law. To aſſault by violence a member of either houſe, or his menial ſervants, is a high contempt of parliament, and as ſuch puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. Neither can any member of either houſe be arreſted and taken into cuſtody, nor ſerved with any proceſs of the courts of law; nor can his menial ſervants be arreſted; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be diſtrained or ſeized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament *.

The houſe of lords are attended by the judges of the court of king's bench and common pleas, and ſuch of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made ſerjeants at law; as likewiſe by the maſters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great ſeal, which dignities are commonly veſted in the ſame perſon. Each peer has a right, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons for ſuch diſſent; which is uſually ſtyled his proteſt. Upon particular occaſions theſe proteſts have been ſo bold as to

* This exemption from arreſts for lawful debts, was always conſidered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generouſly relinquiſhed their privilege by act of parliament in 1770; and members of both houſes may now be ſued like other debtors.

give

give offence to the majority of the houſe, and have therefore been expunged from the journals: but this has been thought a violent meaſure.

The houſe of commons may be properly ſtyled the grand inqueſt of Great Britain, impowered to enquire into all national grievances. The peculiar laws and cuſtoms of the houſe of commons relate principally to the raiſing of taxes, and the elections of members to ſerve in parliament. With regard to taxes: it is the ancient indiſputable privilege and the right of the houſe of commons, that all grants of ſubſidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their houſe, and be firſt beſtowed by them; although their grants are not effectual until they have the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature. The general reaſon given for this excluſive privilege of the houſe of commons is, that the ſupplies are raiſed upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone ſhould have the right of taxing themſelves. And ſo reaſonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not ſuffer the other houſe to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the leaſt alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill. Under this appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raiſed upon the ſubject, for any purpoſe, or in any ſhape whatſoever; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular diſtrict, as by turnpikes, pariſh-rates, and the like.

The method of making laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each houſe the act of the majority binds the whole: and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given; not as at Venice, and many other ſenatorial aſſemblies, privately or by ballot. This latter method may be ſerviceable to prevent intrigues and unconſtitutional combinations, but it is impoſſible to be practiſed in the houſe of commons, where every member's conduct is ſubject to the future cenſure of his conſtituents, and therefore ſhould be openly ſubmitted to their inſpection.

To bring a bill into the houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it be of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition, ſetting forth the grievance deſired to be remedied. This petition muſt be preſented by a member, and, when founded on facts that may be in their nature diſputed, is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and report it to the houſe; and then (or, otherwiſe, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the houſe, without any petition. (In the houſe of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alleged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a firſt time, and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſecond time; and after each reading, the ſpeaker explains to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion, whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and, if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropt for that ſeſſion.

After the ſecond reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee; which is either ſelected by the houſe in buſineſs of ſmall importance; or elſe, if the bill is a matter of great or national conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member; and, to form it, the ſpeaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman), and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees, the bill is debated clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the

committee have made; and then the houſe reconſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed, or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment ſewed together. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendments are ſometimes then made to it; and if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again explains the contents; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion, whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this, one of the members is directed to carry it to the lords, and deſire their concurrence; who, attended by ſeveral more, carries it to the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. It there paſſes through the forms, as in the other houſe (except engroſſing, which is already done), and if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *ſub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery (or, ſometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame: and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe; who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference: but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members, with a meſſage to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have done with any bill, it is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. No expreſſion can be inſerted, nor the ſlighteſt alteration take place, till the ſpeaker, or the chairman, puts the queſtion; which, in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no*; and, in the houſe of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to paſs bills in perſon he appears on his throne in the houſe of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of ſtate and heralds. A ſeat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly ſat, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood ſit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a cloſe bench removed a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe ſitting on wool is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways: 1. In perſon. When the king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the ſpeaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn

ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom fails to extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majeſty how neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occaſion, that the commons of Great Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre. The titles of all bills that have paſſed both houſes are read; and the king's anſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman-French. If the king conſents to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be;" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait comme il eſt deſiré*, "be it as it is deſired." If the king refuſes his aſſent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When a money-bill is paſſed, it is carried up and preſented to the king by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is thus expreſſed, *le roy remercie ſes loyals ſubjects, accepte leur benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it ſo to be". In caſe of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt ſtage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the ſubject; *les prelats, ſeigneurs, et commons, en ce preſent parliament aſſemblies, au nom de touts vous autres ſubjects, remercient tres humblement votre majeſté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Hen. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners, conſiſting of certain peers, named in the letters. And when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

This ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent by his repreſentative. However, copies are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

An act of parliament, thus made, is the exerciſe of the higheſt authority that this kingdom acknowledges upon earth. It hath power to bind every ſubject in the land, and the dominions thereunto belonging; nay, even the king himſelf, if particularly named. And it cannot be altered, amended, diſpenſed with, ſuſpended, or repealed, but in the ſame forms, and by the ſame authority of parliament: for it is a maxim in law, that it requires the ſame ſtrength to diſſolve as to create an obligation.

Such is the parliament of Great Britain; the ſource and guardian of our liberties and properties, the ſtrong cement which binds the foundation and ſuperſtructure of our government, and the wiſely concerted balance maintaining an equal poiſe, that no one part of the three eſtates overpower or diſtreſs either of the other.

From the above general view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears, that no ſecurity for its permanency, which man can deviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected, that parliaments may become ſo corrupted as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over their political exiſtence as a private perſon does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are great reſources of liberty in England; and though the conſtitution has been dangerouſly wounded, and ſometimes overturned, yet its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it.

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, who are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. They are named by the king, without either patent or grant; and on taking the neceſſary oaths, they become privy-counſellors during the life of the king that chuſes them, but ſubject to removal at his pleaſure.

The duty of a privy-counſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles: 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And, laſtly, in general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, muſt ſupply the deficiency. Upon great and urgent occaſions, ſuch as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can ſuperſede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not ſitting; but this is conſidered as illegal, and an act of parliament muſt paſs for the pardon and indemnification of thoſe concerned.

Among the privy-counſellors, the two ſecretaries of ſtate are more officially ſo than the others, as they are entruſted with the king's ſignet, and are ſuppoſed to adviſe him in acts of government that may not be proper to be communicated even to a privy-counſellor; ſuch as giving orders for ſecret expeditions, correſpondence with foreign agents, ſecuring traitors, and the like. The ſecretaryſhip of ſtate is now held by two noblemen or gentlemen; formerly the king nominated three, but the office was not then of that conſequence which it is now. Since the acceſſion of the family of Hanover, we have likewiſe known three principal ſecretaries of ſtate; but one of them was ſuppoſed to tranſact the affairs of Scotland, which are now committed to other miniſters. Upon the increaſe of the Britiſh colonies, a new board of trade was erected, and the firſt commiſſioner acted as ſecretary for the American affairs, but without that title. A third ſecretary of ſtate was afterwards appointed for carrying on the American war, whoſe office ceaſed with the peace; the board of trade alſo hath been aboliſhed as uſeleſs.

The office of ſecretary of ſtate is at preſent divided into a ſouthern and a northern department. The ſouthern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs Cantons, Conſtantinople, and, in ſhort, all the ſtates in the ſouthern parts. The northern comprehends the different ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanſeatic towns.

With regard to the acts of government formerly committed to the ſecretaries of ſtate, a committee of the privy-council, commonly called a cabinet-council, are chiefly entruſted. This cabinet generally conſiſts of a ſelect number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court: but though its operations are powerful and extenſive, a cabinet-council is not eſſential to the conſtitution of England.

This obſervation naturally leads me to mention the perſon who is ſo well known by the name of the *firſt miniſter*, a term unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps neceſſary. The conſtitution points out the lord high chancellor as miniſter, but the affairs of his own courts give him ſufficient employment. When the office of firſt lord of the treaſury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer in the ſame perſon, he is conſidered as firſt miniſter. The truth is, his majeſty may make any of his ſervants his firſt miniſter. But though it is no office, yet there is a reſponſibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a poſt of difficulty and danger. I ſhall now take a ſhort review of the

the nine great officers of the crown, who by their poſts take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The firſt is the lord high-ſteward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at leaſt for life; but now, and for centuries paſt, it is exerciſed only occaſionally; that is, at a coronation, or to ſit as judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations it is held for that day only, by ſome nobleman of the firſt rank. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whoſe commiſſion, as high ſteward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned, and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reaſon. He is an officer of the greateſt weight and power of any now ſubſiſting in the kingdom, and is ſuperior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy-counſellor by his office, and, according to ſome, prolocutor of the houſe of lords by preſcription. To him belongs the appointments of all juſtices of the peace; he is viſitor in right of the king of all hoſpitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics; and hath the ſuperintendance of all charitable uſes in the kingdom, over and above the extenſive juriſdiction which he exerciſes in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The poſt of lord high treaſurer has of late been veſted in a commiſſion, conſiſting of five perſons, who are called lords of the treaſury; but the firſt commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of lord high treaſurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer; as alſo the letting of the leaſes of all crown-lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the kingdom. From this ſhort view of his office, its importance may be eaſily underſtood; as he has, in fact, the public finances in his hands, beſides the diſpoſal of ſo great a number of lucrative places, that the bare catalogue of them would exceed the bounds we allot to a long article.

The lord preſident of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor and lord treaſurer. His duty is to propoſe all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majeſty is not preſent, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the number of American and Weſt India cauſes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged, to the great conveniency of the ſubject, by an able preſident.

The office of lord privy ſeal conſiſts in his putting the king's ſeal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are ſigned by the king, in order to their paſſing the great ſeal. The lord privy ſeal has likewiſe under his cognizance ſeveral other affairs, which do not require the great ſeal. He is to take care that the crown is not impoſed upon in any tranſaction paſſing through his hands; and he is reſponſible if he ſhould apply the privy ſeal to any thing againſt the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary to the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the ſitting of parliament; and of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, or trials of peers.

The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation. It was formerly a place of the higheſt truſt, as it commanded all the king's forts and garriſons, and took place of all officers in the field.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required

required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory. In time of war he was judge of army-cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch a deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which fell within the marſhal's province. To this day he, or his deputy, regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the heralds office, which is entirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like. He is ſuppoſed to be judge of the marſhalſea-court; and in thoſe reigns where proclamations had the force of law, he had a cenſorial power in all caſes of uſurping falſe names, deſignations, armorial bearings, and the like; but this power is now diſputed, and reduced to a conformity with the common law.

The office of lord high admiral of England * is now likewiſe held by commiſſion, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, eſpecially ſince the increaſe of the Britiſh naval power. The Engliſh admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proccedings independent of the crown itſelf. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commiſſion immediately iſſuing from that board; and the members muſt ſign even the death warrants for execution; but it may be eaſily conceived, that, as they are removeable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can claſh with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the directions they receive from his majeſty. The board of admiralty regulates the naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its proceſſes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is a court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and in his abſence the maſter of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees; the witneſſes being examined in private: however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and conſequently, if a man refuſed to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can if he ſees reaſon for it, grant a *habeas corpus*. The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs; through his hands paſs all writs for ſummoning the parliament, or chooſing of members; commiſſions of the peace, pardons &c.

The King's Bench, ſo called either from the kings of England ſometimes ſitting there in perſon, or becauſe all matters determinable by common law between the king and his ſubjects are here tried, except ſuch affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is likewiſe, a kind of checque upon all the inferior

* The laſt lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and huſband to queen Anne.

courts,

courts, their judges, and juſtices of the peace. Here preſide four judges, the firſt of whom is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the king's bench, or, by way of eminence, lord chief juſtice of England, to expreſs the great extent of his juriſdiction over the kingdom; for this court can grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices or judges of the king's bench.

The court of Common Pleas take cognizance of all pleas debateable, and civil actions depending between ſubject and ſubject; and in it, beſides all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the Common Pleas, or common bench; beſide whom there are likewiſe three other judges or juſtices of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer and three other barons preſide as judges. They are ſtyled barons, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Beſide theſe, there is a fifth, called curſitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in adminiſtering the oath to ſheriffs and their officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined. Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aids and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers. The lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-ſheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Weſtmoreland and Middleſex) by the king *; whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's court of juſtice; to impannel juries, to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial, to ſee ſentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them while they are in his county. He is likewiſe to decide in the firſt inſtance, the elections of knights of the ſhire, or coroners, and of vendurers; to judge, of the qualifications of voters, and to return ſuch as he ſhall determine to be duly elected. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes and amerciaments into the Exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county-court, which is held by the ſheriffs, or his under ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county, under forty ſhillings: this, however, is no court of record; but the court formerly called the ſheriff's turn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences againſt the common law, where by the ſtatute law there was no reſtraint. This court, however, has been long ſince aboliſhed. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by

* Sheriffs were formerly choſen by the inhabitants of the ſeveral counties. In ſome counties the ſheriffs were hereditary, and ſtill continue in the county of Weſtmoreland. The city of London hath alſo the inheritance of the ſhrievalty of Middleſex veſted in their body by charter.

common

common law and ſpecial commiſſion, he is the firſt man in the county, and ſuperior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *poſſe comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the ſheriff are various officers; as the under-ſheriff, clerks, ſtewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called ſerjeants), conſtables, gaolers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the ſheriff is the *juſtice of the peace*, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county: and to them is entruſted the power of putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. They examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grant inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of peace ought to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity, and not without ſome knowledge of the law; for as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is ſo intoxicating, without theſe qualifications he will be apt to make miſtakes, and to ſtep beyond his authority, for which he is indeed liable to be called to an account at the court of king's bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to enquire by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is to enquire concerning ſhipwrecks, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. In his miniſterial office he is the ſheriff's ſubſtitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall independent policy of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in matters civil and criminal: with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all capital offences are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who together make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuſe their own ſheriffs; and all of them have a power of making bye-laws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the Engliſh government, by king, lords, and commons. The government of incorporated boroughs is nearly ſimilar: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; who, during their mayoralty or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly eſteemed moſt important ones, that lie on the eaſt part of England toward France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Haſtings, and Hythe, to which Winchelſea and Rye, have been ſince added, with ſimilar franchiſes in many reſpects. Theſe cinque-ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil, or manor (who were formerly called barons), have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to preſent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron the

the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on a deſcent or purchaſe.

A *conſtable* is a very ancient and reſpectable officer of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable; and they are to attend the high-conſtable upon proper occaſions. They are aſſiſted by another ancient officer, called the tything-man, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burgh conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſide theſe, there are courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of ſmall debts, not exceeding forty ſhillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any conſtitution provided with ſo many fences as that of England, for the ſecurity of perſonal liberty. Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ befere a judge in Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of juſtice.

The rights of individuals are ſo attentively guarded, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. He cannot take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs he has, by ſome illegal act, of which he is accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons on ſuch a ſuſpicion of guilt: ſuch as the caſe of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legiſlature has thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act: but this has ſeldom been done but with difficulty and caution, and when the national ſafety abſolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty by twelve men, who muſt be his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king, or his miniſters, to miſrepreſent the caſe to the jury, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the pleaſure of their ſovereign. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any ſubject without trial, and the perſons being firſt charged with a capital crime, as treaſon, murder, felony, or ſome other act injurious to ſociety; nor can any ſubject be deprived of his liberty, for the higheſt crime, till ſome proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magiſtrate; and he has then a right to inſiſt upon his being brought, the firſt opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be reſtored to liberty on giving bail for his apppearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alledged to be committed, and not unleſs twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted that where either party is an alien born, the jury ſhall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial. A privilege in-

dulged to ſtrangers in no other country, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred *. In ſome caſes, the man (who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there be ſufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number †, and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the priſoners whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power: by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Upon their integrity and underſtanding the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore inveſted with a ſolemn and awful truſt: if he without evidence ſubmits his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaiſance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care; if he queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the moſt impartial hearing, has the leaſt doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accuſed; he will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhmen conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them. Were not this the caſe, juries would be uſeleſs, tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the judge on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury being ſo great a ſecurity to the liberty of the ſubject, it is much to be regretted, that perſons of education and property are often too ready to evade ſerving the office. By this means juries frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate perſons, who have neither knowledge to underſtand their rights and the privileges of Engliſhmen, nor ſpirit to maintain them. No man ſhould be above ſerving ſo important an office, when regularly called upon: and thoſe who, from indolence or pride, decline diſcharging this duty to their country, ſeem hardly to deſerve that ſecurity and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this invaluable inſtitution. Juries have, indeed, always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they afford a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject, ſays he, let all ways be tried to juſtify him; if that be impoſſible, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubject may not get too great a cuſtom of laying their hands on the Patrician order." In ſhort, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings.

* Statute de Monticolis Walliæ. † The party may challenge thirty-five, in caſe of treaſon.

But

But by our happy conſtitution, which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt as well as the greateſt. When a priſoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are ſuppoſed to be his counſel, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly employed in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations; the following account may be uſeful to foreigners and others, who have not ſeen thoſe proceedings

The court being met, and the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accuſed, and aſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the priſoner anſwers *guilty*, his trial is at an end: but if he anſwers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confeſſed the fact; for the law of England takes no notice of ſuch confeſſion; and unleſs the witneſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury muſt acquit him: for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court.

When the witneſſes have given their evidence, and the priſoner has, by himſelf or his counſel, croſs-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the ſubſtance of the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and bids them diſcharge their conſcience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman for himſelf and the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty* or *not guilty*. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimouſly agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die during this their confinement, the priſoner will be acquitted. When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in doubtful caſes, when the verdict is brought in *ſpecial*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the priſoner be found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſon he can give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy—it is changed to tranſportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction the ſentence of death, after a ſummary account of the trial, is pronounced on the priſoner, in theſe words: *The law is, That thou ſhalt return to the place from whence thou cameſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou ſhalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead, and the Lord have mercy on thy ſoul!* whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the execution.

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury are immediately acquitted and diſcharged; and, in ſome caſes, obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

Of PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are eſteemed more merciful to offenders than thoſe which at preſent ſubſiſt in any other part of the world, yet the puniſhment of ſuch as at their trial refuſe to plead guilty or not guilty was formerly very cruel. In this caſe the priſoner was laid upon his back upon the bare floor, naked, and his arms and legs being ſtretched out with cords, and a conſiderable weight of iron laid upon his breaſt, he was allowed only three morſels of barley bread the firſt day, the next day he was allowed nothing but three

draughts of foul water that ſhall be neareſt to the priſon door; and, in this ſituation, this was to be alternately his daily diet till he expired. This puniſhment, however, there was ſeldom occaſion to inflict, and the cruel proceſs is now aboliſhed; for by a late act of parliament the priſoner's refuſal to plead is to be conſidered as a conviction, and he is to ſuffer the ſame puniſhment as if he had been tried, and found guilty. And formerly, in caſe of high treaſon, though the criminal ſtood mute, judgment was given againſt him, as if he had been convicted, and his eſtate was confiſcated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treaſon*, *petty treaſon*, and *felony*. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility. But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged. Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe *.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

Petty treaſon is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. This crime is puniſhed by the offender's being drawn in a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty both of this crime and of high-treaſon, are ſentenced to be burnt alive; but this law has been very lately repealed, and they are now hanged, without being burnt.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging, only † murderers are to be executed ſoon after ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there were ſome alleviating circumſtances, uſed ſometimes to be tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations; but ſince the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years; lately ſome have been ſent to Africa and Nova Scotia; and it is to be hoped, that the new ſettlement at Botany-Bay will be productive of ſalutary conſequences.

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

Manſlaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon, without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two, who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this caſe the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which

* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment, but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after ſentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday; ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

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the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand, unleſs the offender was doing an unlawful act: which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

Shoplifting and receiving goods knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

Petty-larceny, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve pence, is puniſhed by whipping.

Libelling, uſing falſe weights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding in the pillory.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking, in Weſtminſter-hall, while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, the puniſhment is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.] The firſt private relation of perſons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of huſband and wife; or, as moſt of our elder law-books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhment, therefore, or annulling, of inceſtuous, or other unſcriptural marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.

The firſt legal diſability is a prior marriage, or having another huſband or wife living; in which caſe, beſides the penalties conſequent upon it as felony, the ſecond marriage is to all intents and purpoſes void: polygamy being condemned both by the law of the New Teſtament, and the policy of all prudent ſtates. The ſecond legal diſability is want of age. This is ſufficient to void all other contracts, on account of the imbecility of judgment in the parties contracting. Therefore if a boy under fourteen, or a girl under twelve years of age, marries, this marriage is imperfect; and, when either of them comes to the age of conſent aforeſaid, they may diſagree, and declare the marriage void, without any divorce or ſentence in the ſpiritual court. This is founded on the civil law. But the canon law pays a greater regard to the conſtitution than the age of the parties: for if they are *habiles ad matrimonium*, it is a good marriage, whatever their age may be. And in our law it is ſo far a marriage, that if at the age of conſent they agree to continue together, they need not be married again. If the huſband be of years of diſcretion, and the wife under twelve, when ſhe comes to years of diſcretion he may diſagree as well as ſhe may; for in contract the obligation muſt be mutual; both muſt be bound, or neither; and ſo it is, *vice verſa*, when the wife is of years of diſcretion, and the huſband under.

Another incapacity ariſes from want of conſent of guardians. By the common law, if the parties themſelves were of age of conſent, there wanted no other concurrence to make the marriage valid; and this was agreeable to the canon law. But by ſeveral ſtatutes, penalties of 100l. are laid on every clergyman, who marries a couple either without publication of banns (which may give notice to parents or guardians), or without a licence; to obtain which, the conſent of parents or guardians muſt be ſworn to. And it has been lately thought proper to enact, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns ſuppoſe notice), where either of the parties is under twenty-one (not being a widow, or widower, who are ſuppoſed free) without the conſent of the father, or if he be not living, of the mother or guardians, ſhall be abſolutely void. A proviſion is made, as in the civil law, when the mother or guardian is *non compos*, beyond the ſea, or unreaſonably froward, to diſpenſe with ſuch conſent at the diſcretion of the lord chancellor; but no proviſion is

made, in caſe the father ſhould labour under any mental, or other incapacity. Much may be, and much has been ſaid, both for and againſt this innovation upon our ancient laws and conſtitution. On the one hand, it prevents the clandeſtine marriages of minors, which are often a great inconvenience to thoſe private families wherein they happen. On the other hand, reſtraints upon marriages, eſpecially among the lower claſs, are detrimental to the public, by hindering the increaſe of people; and to religion and morality, by encouraging licentiouſneſs and debauchery among the ſingle of both ſexes, and thereby deſtroying one end of ſociety and government.

A fourth incapacity is want of reaſon: without a competent ſhare of which, as no other, ſo neither can the matrimonial contract be valid.

Laſtly, the parties muſt not only be willing and able to contract, but actually muſt contract themſelves in due form of law, to make it a good civil marriage. Verbal contracts are now of no force, to compel a future marriage. Neither is any marriage at preſent valid, that is not celebrated in ſome pariſh-church, or public chapel, unleſs by diſpenſation from the archbiſhop of Canterbury. It muſt alſo be preceded by publication of banns, or by licence from the ſpiritual judge. It is held tobe alſo eſſential to marriage, that it be performed by a perſon in orders: though in the times of the civil war, all marriages were performed by the juſtices of the peace; and theſe marriages were declared valid in the ſucceeding reign; as the marriages of Quakers are at perſent. As the law now ſtands, we may upon the whole collect, that no marriage by the temporal law is void, that is celebrated by a perſon in orders,—in a pariſh church, or public chapel (or elſewhere, by diſpenſation) —in purſuance of banns or a licence,—between ſingle perſons,—conſenting,—of ſound mind,—and of the age of twenty-one years; or of the age of fourteen in male, and twelve in female, with conſent of parents or guardians, or without it in caſe of widowhood.

There are two kinds of divorce, the one total, the other partial. The total divorce muſt be for ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment, and thoſe exiſting before the marriage: as conſanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecility. The iſſue of ſuch marriage, as it is thus entirely diſſolved, are baſtards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is juſt and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſupervenient cauſe it becomes improper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live together; as in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this caſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman, for her ſupport, out of the huſband's eſtate; being ſetttled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge, on the conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and the rank and quality of the parties.

Having thus ſhewn how marriages may be made, or diſſolved, I come now, laſtly, to ſpeak of the legal conſequences of ſuch making, or diſſolution.

By marriage, the huſband and wife are one perſon in law; that is, the very being, or legal exiſtence of the woman, is ſuſpended during the marriage, or at leaſt is incorporated and conſolidated into that of the huſband: under whoſe wing, protection, and *cover*, ſhe performs every thing, and is therefore called in our Law French, a *feme-covert*, under the protection and influence of her huſband, her *baron* or lord; and her condition, during her marriage, is called her *coverture*. Upon this principle of an union of perſon in huſband and wife depends almoſt all the legal rights, duties, and diſabilities, that either of them acquire by the marriage. I ſpeak not at preſent of the rights of property, but of ſuch as are merely *perſonal*. For this reaſon a man cannot grant any thing to his wife, or enter into a covenant with her; for the grant would be to ſuppoſe her ſeparate exiſtence; and the covenant with her would

would be only to covenant with himſelf; and therefore it is generally true, that all compacts made between huſband and wife, when ſingle, are voided by the intermarriage. A woman indeed may be attorney for her huſband; for that implies no ſeparation from, but is rather a repreſentation of, her lord. And a huſband may alſo bequeath any thing to his wife by will: for that cannot take effect till the coverture is determined by his death. The huſband is bound to provide his wife with neceſſaries by law, as much as himſelf; and if ſhe contracts debts for him, he is obliged to pay them: but for any thing beſides neceſſaries, he is not chargeable. Alſo if the wife elopes, and lives with another man, the huſband is not chargeable even for neceſſaries: at leaſt, if the perſon who furniſhes them is ſufficiently apprized of her elopement. If the wife be indebted before marriage, the huſband is bound afterwards to pay the debt; for he has adopted her and her circumſtances together. If the wife be injured in her perſon or property, ſhe can bring no action for redreſs, without her huſband's concurrence, and in his name, as well as her own; neither can ſhe be ſued, without making the huſband a defendant; except when the huſband has abjured the realm, or is baniſhed; for then he is dead in law. In criminal proſecutions, it is true, the wife may be indicted, and puniſhed ſeparately; for the union is only a civil union. But, in trials of any ſort, they are not allowed to be evidences for, or againſt, each other; partly becauſe it is impoſſible their teſtimony ſhould be impartial; but principally becauſe of the union of perſon. But where the offence is directly againſt the perſon of the wife, this rule has been uſually diſpenſed with; and therefore, in caſe a woman be forcibly taken away, and married, ſhe may be a witneſs againſt ſuch her huſband, in order to convict him of felony.

In the civil law, the huſband and the wife are conſidered as two diſtinct perſons; and may have ſeparate eſtates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore, in our eccleſiaſtical courts, a woman may ſue, and be ſued, without her huſband. Though our law in general conſiders man and wife as one perſon, yet there are ſome inſtances in which ſhe is ſeparately conſidered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulſion. Therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which caſe ſhe muſt be ſolely and ſecretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will deviſe land to her huſband, unleſs under ſpecial circumſtances; for, at the time of making it, ſhe is ſuppoſed to be under his coercion. And in ſome felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her, through conſtraint of her huſband, the law excuſes her; but this extends not to treaſon or murder.

The huſband alſo (by the old, and likewiſe by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction; for, as he is to anſwer for her miſbehaviour, the law thought it reaſonable to entruſt him with this power of reſtraining her, by domeſtic chaſtiſement, in the ſame moderation that a man is allowed to correct his ſervants or children: for whom the maſter or parent is alſo liable in ſome caſes to anſwer. But in the poliſter reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have ſecurity of the peace againſt her huſband; or, in return, a huſband againſt his wife; yet the lower rank of people claim and exert their ancient privilege; and the courts of law will permit a huſband to reſtrain a wife of her liberty, in caſe of any groſs miſbehaviour.

Theſe are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may obſerve, that even the diſabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the moſt part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female ſex with the laws of England!

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's eccleſiaſtical revenues conſiſt in, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhopricks; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing

ariſing from allowances of meat, drink, and cloathing, due to the king from an abbey or monaſtery, and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; and his ſending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to have a penſion beſtowed upon him till the biſhop promoted him to a benefice. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt fruits and tenths of benefices. At preſent, ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that thoſe branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The demeſne lands of the crown, which at preſent lie in a narrow compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feodal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His foreſts. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonymous names of aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies; and are granted by the commons of Great Britain, in parliament aſſembled: who, when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the *quantum* of that ſupply, uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to conſider of the ways and means of raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detrimental to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the houſe) are in general deemed final and concluſive; for, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, if the propoſed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the houſe of commons.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonage and poundage of all merchandiſe exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The poſt-office *, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp-duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions, with a variety of new taxes impoſed in the year 1784.

The neat annual produce of theſe ſeveral branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is eſtimated at eleven millions ſterling; with two millions and a quarter raiſed at an average, by the land and malt-tax. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated, is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the *intereſt* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it muſt be firſt premiſed, that after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, and expences of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to

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The following was the ſtate of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commiſſioners of public accounts:

£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
211,363,254	15	4¾	Funded debt			
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			Intereſt thereon - - -	612,742	0	0
230,219,796	6	9¼				
			Charges at the Bank for managing the buſineſs	134,291	13	1
			Fees at the auditor's office of impreſt	19,874	2	8
			Some other fees of office	696	12	4
				8,719,534	9	1
			Since this report the funded debt hath increaſed to -	232,280,549	0	
			The unfunded debt, meaning all expences, deficiencies, arrears, and outſtanding debts, for paying the principal or intereſt of which no proviſion was made by parliament, may be moderately reckoned - -	38,000,000	0	0
			The amount of Exchequer bills - -	9,418,564	0	0
				279,698,913	0	0
			Thus the whole annual charge brought upon the nation by its debts funded and unfunded, appears to be about	9,500,000	0	0
			Peace eſtabliſhment reckoned at the average annual expence for eleven years preceding the war - -	3,950,000	0	0
			Income of the civil liſt - - - -	900,000	0	0
			Whole expenditure,	14,350,000	0	0

* In the courſe of the late war from 1776, to 1782, 46,550,000l. was added to the 3 *per cents.* and 26,750,000l. to the 4 *per cents*, making together a capital of 73,400,000l. for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

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The produce of the ſeveral taxes were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting them together: ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for ſome years about 2,600,000l. *per annum*; the *general fund*, ſo called from ſuch union and addition, which for ſome years have amounted to rather more than a million *per annum*; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million *per annum*. The ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumptions, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them. The ſurpluſſes therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 George I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the *ſinking fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to ſink or reduce the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other entire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annnal intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of, the produce of the ſinking fund. However, the neat ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum; for, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or be paid their principal), the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation; its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, ſeveral encroachments were made upon the ſinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it, under pretence of eaſing the landed intereſt. The practice of alienating the ſinking fund hath increaſed; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged, and ſubſequent adminiſtrations have broken in upon it, thus converting an excellent expedient for ſaving the kingdom, into a ſupply for the worſt purpoſes.

In ſome years, the ſinking fund hath produced from two to three millions; and, if 1,212,000l. of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts from the year 1733 to the preſent time, one hundred and ſixty millions would have been paid off, and the nation much relieved. Such regulations are, however, made at preſent, [1790] and actually have, in part, taken place, not only for reducing the national debt, but alſo for collecting the public taxes, as affords the moſt pleaſing proſpect to every perſon anxious for the proſperity of Great Britain *.

Before

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly ſhews that, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent. ſtock, if diſcharged at 60l. in money for every 100l. ſtock, and in forty years more, without any further aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A ſurplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million, by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would diſcharge the ſame ſums in the ſame periods.

"In ſhort, ſo neceſſary is it at preſent to expedite

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the ſurpluſſes whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the ſinking fund) can be applied to diminiſh the principal of the public debt, it ſtands mortgaged by parliament to raiſe an annual ſum for the maintenance of the king's houſhold and the civil liſt. For this purpoſe, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the exciſe and cuſtoms, the poſt-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown-lands, the profits ariſing from courts of juſtice (which articles include all the hereditary revenues of the crown), and alſo a clear annuity of 100,000l. in money, were ſettled on the king for life, for the ſupport of his majeſty's houſhold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And, as the amount of theſe ſeveral branches were uncertain, (though in the laſt reign they were computed to have ſometimes raiſed almoſt a million), if they did not riſe annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his preſent majeſty having, ſoon after his acceſſion, ſpontaneouſly ſignified his conſent, that his own hereditary revenues might be ſo diſpoſed of, as might beſt conduce to the utility and ſatisfaction of the public; and having accepted the limited ſum of 800,000l. *per annum*, for the ſupport of his civil liſt (and that alſo charged with three life annuities, to the princeſs of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princeſs Amelia, to the amount of 77,000l.), the ſaid hereditary, and other revenues are now carried into, and made, part of the aggregate fund; and the aggegate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, beſides annual payments to the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland, and the repreſentatives of Arthur Onſlow, eſq. and the earl of Chatham. Hereby the revenues themſelves, being put under the ſame care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected than heretofore. The civil liſt, thus liquidated, together with the millions intereſt of the national debt, and the ſums produced from the ſinking fund, beſide the uncertain ſums, ariſing from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately impoſed, make the clear produce of the taxes, excluſive of the charge of collecting, which are raiſed yearly on the people of this country, amount to upward of fourteen millions ſterling.

The Amount of the Capitals at the Bank, South Sea, and India Houſes. Corrected to the 5th of January, 1787.				Intereſt per annum.			When due.	When Tranſferable.	Holidays.
Bank ſtock	11,642,400			698,544			5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	Tu. Thu. & Fri.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 30,
5 per cent. navy annuities *	17,869,993	9	10	893,499	13	5	5 Jan. & 5 July.	M. W. & Fri.	Feb. 2, 24.
4 per cent. conſols	32,750,000			1,310,000			5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	Tu. W. Thu. & Fri.	March 25.
3 per cent. conſols	107,399,696	5	1	3,221,990	17	9	5 Jan. & 5 July.	ditto	April 23, 25.
3 per cent. reduced	37,340,073	16	4	1,120,202	4	3	5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	ditto	May 1, 29.
3 per cent. 1726	1,000,000			30,000			5 Jan. & 5 July	Th. & Thu.	June 4, 11, 24, 29.
Long annuities †				680,375			ditto	Tu. W. & Sat.	July 25.
Short annuities, 1778 and 1779 ‡				412,500			5 Jan. & 5 July.	M. W. & Fri.	Aug. 1, 12, 24.
									Sep. 2, 21, 22, 29.
South Sea ſtock	3,662,784			128,197	9	1	5 Jan. & 5 July.	M. W. & Fri.	Oct. 18, 25, 26, 28.
3 per cent. old annuities	11,907,470	2	7	357,224	2		5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	ditto	Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30.
3 per cent. new	8,494,830	2	10	254,844	18	1	5 Jan. & 5 July.	Tu. Thu. & Sat	Dec. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28.
3 per cent. 1751	1,919,600			57,588			ditto	Tu. & Thu.	Moveable.
									Shrove Tu. Aſh W.
India ſtock	4,000,000			320,000			5 Ap. & 5 July	Tu. Thu. & Sat.	Good Friday.
3 per cent. annuities	3,000,000			90,000			5 Jan. & 10 Oct.	M. W. & Fri.	Eaſt. M. T. W. Ho. T.
									Whit. M. Tu. & W.
N. B. Intereſt on India Bonds,							N. B. Divids. paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3.		
due 21ſt of March, and 30th Sep.	240,188,848	5	2	9,536,026	4	7	Transfers		11 to 1.
							Divids. at the S. S. & Ind. Houſe, 9 to 12.		
							Tranfers		12 to 1.

pedite, by every poſſible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the ſurplus which can be obtained for a ſinking fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for ſaving the kingdom.—The increaſe of taxes which ſuch a meaſure muſt occaſion, would be ſo inconſiderable and ſo gradual, as to be ſcarcely perceptible; and, at the ſame time, it would manifeſt ſuch a determined reſolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happieſt influence on public credit.

* Redeemable when 25 millions of the 3 or 4 per cents are paid.

† Theſe will fall in January 1860.

‡ Theſe will fall in 1808.

The expences defrayed by the civil liſt, are thoſe that in any ſhape relate to civil government; as the expences of the houſhold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purſe, and other very numerous outgoings; as ſecret ſervice-money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe ſometimes have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament, to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpoſe by the ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large ſums have alſo been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the preſent reign; and the conſiderable augmentation of 100,000l. has likewiſe been made to his annual income. When the bill for ſuppreſſing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which ſavings were to be made to the amount of 72,368l. per annum, it appeared that the arrears then due on the civil liſt at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877l 18s. 4d. notwithſtanding ſo liberal an allowance had been recently made, and the king's debts had been repeatedly liquidated by parliamentary grants; and for the payment of this other debt proviſion was made by the bill.

The civil liſt is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and diſtributed again in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it is now ſtanding in the ſame place as the hereditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminiſhed, the parliamentary appointments have increaſed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The *military ſtate* includes the whole of the ſoldiery; or, ſuch perſons as are peculiarly appointed among the reſt of the people, for the ſafeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty (ſays judge Blackſtone), it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch no man ſhould take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen, and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms formerly knew no ſuch ſtate, as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers. In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe, who by their military tenures were bound to perform forty days ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Wincheſter obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace; and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice. It was uſual from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſioners of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſettled in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord lieu-

tenants

tenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe; for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the Reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia-laws; the general ſcheme of which, is to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe to be ſent out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence, and which the ſtatutes declare, is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom.

But as the mode of keeping ſtanding armies has prevailed over all Europe for a conſiderable time, it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces * of theſe kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the Eaſt Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there have been in the pay of Great Britain, ſince the commencement of the American war, 135,000 men, beſides 42,000 militia. To regulate this body of troops an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted that if any officer and ſoldier ſhall excite, or join any mutiny, or knowing of it, ſhall not give notice to the commanding officer; or ſhall deſert, or liſt in any other regiment, or ſleep upon his poſt, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correſpondence with a rebel or enemy, or ſtrike or uſe violence to his ſuperior officer, or diſobey his lawful command; ſuch offender

* The land forces conſiſt of

2 Troops of horſe-guards, raiſed in 1660.—2 Troops of horſe-grenadier-guards, raiſed in 693, and 1702.—1 Royal regiment of horſe-guards, ditto, 1661.—4 Regiments of horſe guards, ditto, 1685 and 1688.—3 Regiments of dragoons-guards, ditto, 1685.—18 Regiments of dragoons, incuding light-horſe, raiſed between 1683 and 1759.—3 Regiments of foot-guards raiſed in 1660.—70 Regiments of foot, the firſt or Royal Scots, raiſed in 1633, the others between 1661 and 1762.—20 independent companies of invalids. 4 Battalions of Royal Artillery, a royal regiment of artillery in Ireland, and a corps of engineers: together with 4 diviſions of marine forces.—1 Regiment of light dragoons, and 5 Battalions of foot in Eaſt India. Several regiments raiſed for the ſervice of the crown, from the commencement of the American war, have lately been diſbanded.

ſhall

ſhall ſuffer ſuch puniſhment as a court martial ſhall inflict, though it extend to death itſelf.

Officers and ſoldiers that have been in the king's ſervice are, by ſeveral ſtatutes, at liberty to uſe any trade or occupation they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two univerſities), notwithſtanding any ſtatute, cuſtom, or charter to the contrary. And ſoldiers, in actual military ſervice, may make verbal wills, and diſpoſe of their goods, wages, and other perſonal chattels, without thoſe forms, ſolemnities, and expences, which the law requires in other caſes.

Daily Pay of each Rank in his Majeſty's Land-Forces on the Britiſh Eſtabliſhment.

	Royal Reg. of Horſe-guards.		Dragoons.		Foot Guards.		Foot.	
	F. Pay.	Subſiſt.	F. Pay.	Subſiſt.	F. Pay.	Subſiſt.	F. Pay.	Subſiſt.
Colonel and Captain	2 1	1 11	1 15	1 6 6	1 19	1 10	1 4	18
Lieutenant Colonel and Captain	1 9 6	1 2 6	1 4 6	18 6	1 8 6	1 1 6	17	13
Major and Captain	1 7	1 1 6	1 6	15 6	1 4 6	18 6	15	11 6
Captain	1 1 6	16	15 6	11 6	16 6	12 6	10	7 6
Captain Lieutenant or Lieutenant	15	11 6	9	7	7 10	6	4 8	3 6
Cornet h. gd. & dr. Enſ. ft. g. Enſ. or 2d Lt. ft.	14	11	8	6	5 10	4 6	3 8	3
Chaplain	6 8	5	6 8	5	6 8	5	6 8	5
Adjutant	5 0	4 6	5	4 6	4	3	4	3
Quarter-Maſter	8 6	6 6	5 6	4	4	3	4 8	3 6
Surgeon	6	4 6	6	4 6	4	3	4	3
Surgeon's Mate					3 6	3	3 6	3
Drum-Major					1 6	1		
Deputy Marſhal					1	9		
Serjeant			2 9	2 3	1 10	1 4	1 6	1
Corporal	3	2 6	2 3	1 9	1 2	10	1	8
Drummer	3	2 6	2 3	1 9	1 2	8	1	8
Trumpeter	2 8	2						
Private Man	2 6	2	1 9	1 5	10	6	8	6
Allowance on the Eſtabliſhment to — Colonel	4	2	2 6	1 2	1 7	6	1 2	6
Do. for hautbois			2	1 6				
Captain (per troop or company)	4	4	2 4	2 4	1 1	1 1	1	1
Agent	2	2	1 2	1 2	6	6	6	6

New Eſtabliſhment of the Corps of the Engineers, October 1ſt, 1784.

Rank.	Per Day. £. S. D.	Per Ann. £. S. D.		Per Day. £. S. D.	Per Ann. £. S. D.
Maſter General	0 0 0	0 0 0	Ten Captains	0 6 0	1095 0 0
Lieutenant General	0 0 0	0 0 0	Twenty Lieutenants	0 7 8	1703 6 8
Chief Engineer	2 4 0	803 0 0	Ten Second Lieutenants	0 4 0	730 0 0
Five Colonels, Each	0 18 0	1642 10 0	Corps of Invalids	2 17 8	1234 10 0
Five Lieutenant Colonels	0 15 0	1368 15 0			
Ten Captains	0 10 0	1825 0 0		Total £.	10,402 10 0

The MARITIME ſtate is nearly related to the former; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, from the earlieſt ages. To ſuch perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground of their marine conſtitutions, was confeſſedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo inferior were our anceſtors in this point to the preſent age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, ſir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is by many aſcribed to the navigation act framed in 1650, which prohibited all

ſhips of foreign nations from trading with the Engliſh plantations without licence from the council of ſtate. In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother-country; and no goods were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in the ſhips of that European nation, of which the merchandiſe imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued, by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners, ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, hath uſually amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they have formerly amounted to no leſs than 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines. The vote of parliament for the ſervice of the year 1784, is for 26,000 ſeamen, including 4495 marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons; namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours, Each ſquadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our favourable ſituation for a maritime power, it was not until the prodigious armament ſent to ſubdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural ſtrength, which it has ſince ſo happily cultivated.

Many laws have been made for the ſupply of the royal navy with ſeamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them during, and after their ſervice.

1. For their ſupply. The power of impreſſing men for the ſea-ſervice by the king's commiſſion, has been a matter of much diſpute, and ſubmitted to with great reluctance; though it hath very learnedly been ſhewn by ſir Michael Foſter, that the practice of impreſſing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpoſe, is of very ancient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular ſeries of precedents to the preſent time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty ariſes from hence, that no ſtatute, or act of parliament, has expreſsly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very ſtrongly imply it. It has alſo been ſuppoſed, that a practice ſo unfavourable to the liberty of the ſubject, and to the common principles of juſtice and humanity, could not be ſolidly ſupported without ſome clear, poſitive, and unequivocal law.

Beſides this method of impreſſing (which, even if legal, is only defenſible from public neceſſity; ſuch as an actual rebellion or invaſion of the kingdom, to which all private conſiderations muſt give way), the principal trading cities, and ſometimes the government, offer bounty-money to ſeamen who enter voluntarily into his majeſty's ſervice: and every foreign ſeaman who, during a war, ſhall ſerve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipſo facto*.

But as impreſſing is generally conſidered as a groſs violation of the natural rights of mankind, ſo has the bounty-money, which ſeldom exceeds 40s. proved ineffectual. The wages of ſeamen on board of merchantmen, in time of war, is uſually 50s. to 4l. per month; on board of the royal navy, they only receive 22s. They are flattered indeed with the hopes of prize-money, which, if divided in a more equitable manner, would produce the happieſt effects. There would then be leſs occaſion for bounty-money or preſſing; our fleets would be ſpeedily manned, and regularly ſupplied with experienced and able ſeamen. Since, under Providence, not only the very exiſtence of this nation, its commerce, and foreign ſettlements; but the liberties of Europe, and ſecurity of the Proteſtant religion, ſolely depend on the

ſtrength

ſtrength and ſucceſs of the Britiſh navy, which is the only mode of war we ought ever to engage in; it has been matter of ſurpriſe to every thinking, diſintereſted ſubject of theſe kingdoms, that neither the above mentioned regulations, nor any other ſatisfactory ſcheme has yet taken place; but that to enrich a few ſuperior officers, we ſhould deprive thoſe very men of their rights and liberty, to whoſe valour and intrepidity alone, in the day of public danger, we look for our preſervation.

2. The method of ordering ſeamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular diſcipline there, is directed by certain expreſs rules, firſt enacted by authority of parliament ſoon after the Reſtoration; but new-modelled and altered ſince the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, to remedy ſome defects, which were ſeverely felt in conducting the preceding war. In theſe articles of the navy almoſt every poſſible offence is ſet down, and the puniſhment thereof annexed, in which reſpect the ſeamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land ſervice; whoſe articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleaſure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on ſailors, they are pretty much the ſame with thoſe conferred on ſoldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed or wounded, or ſuperannuated, it is afforded them either by county rates, or from the royal hoſpital at Greenwich; they are alſo allowed the exerciſe of trades in corporations, and the power of making teſtaments; and, farther, no ſeaman aboard his majeſty's ſhips can be arreſted for any debt, unleſs the ſame be ſworn to amount to at leaſt twenty pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a ſoldier may be arreſted for a debt which extends to half that value *.

I ſhall cloſe this account of the military and maritime ſtrength † of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea-officers and ſailors are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament,

* The Royal Navy of GREAT BRITAIN as it ſtood at Auguſt 31, 1784.

Rates of Ships.	Guns.		No. of each rate.		Complement of Men. Men.		Weight of Metal. Metal.
1ſt.	100 and upward		5	—	875 to 850	—	42 24 12 6
2d.	98 to 90	—	20	—	750 to 700	—	32 18 12 6
3d.	80 to 64	—	130	—	650 to 500	—	32 18 9 6
4th.	60 to 50	—	27	—	420 to 380	—	24 12 6 & 18 9 6
5th.	44 to 32	—	102	—	300 to 220	—	18 9 6 & 12 6
6th.	30 to 20	—	50	—	200 to 160	—	9 4
			334				
Sloops,	18 to 14	—	143	—	125 to 110		
Bombs, Fireſhips, &c.		—	19				
Total,		—	496				

In commiſſion 25 of the line, 7 fifties, 36 frigates, and 105 ſloops. When a ſhip of war becomes old, ot unfit for ſervice, the ſame name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a ſingle beam of the old ſhip remains, the name cannot be changed unleſs by act of parliament.

† The Pay of the Officers of the Royal Navy in each Rate. FLAG OFFICERS, and the CAPTAINS to Flags.

	per day.
Admirals and Commanders in Chief of the Fleet	£.5 0 0
An Admiral	3 10 0
Vice-Admiral	2 10 0
Rear-Admiral	1 15 0
Firſt Captain to the Commander in Chief	1 15 0
Second ditto, and Captain to other Admirals	1 0 0
—— to V. Admirals { if firſt or ſecond Rates, to }	0 16 0
—— to R. Admirals { have the pay of ſuch Rates }	0 13 6

OFFICERS.

liament, which anſwers the annual military act, that is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances of no great moment. The ſoldiers, particularly may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate, to enable him to preſerve the peace againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. But thoſe civil magiſtrates who underſtand the principles of the conſtitution, are extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, or indeed upon any commotion whatever, and with good reaſon; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded againſt with too much caution.

Coins.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence; twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound, which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, halves, and quarters: the ſilver, of crowns, half-crowns, ſhillings, ſix-pences, groats, and even down to a ſilver penny, and the copper money only of half-pence and farthings.

OFFICERS.	*Firſt.*			*Second.*			*Third.*			*Fourth.*			*Fifth.*			*Sixth.*		
	l.	*s,*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*	*l.*	*s.*	*d.*
Captain *per day*	1	0	0	0	16	0	0	13	6	0	10	0	0	8	0	0	8	0
Lieutenant *per day*	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	0
Maſter *per month*	9	2	0	8	8	0	7	6	0	6	12	0	6	2	8	5	0	0
2d maſter and pilots of Yachts, each 3*l.* 10*s.*																		
Maſter's mate	3	6	0	3	0	0	2	16	2	2	7	10	2	2	0	2	2	0
Midſhipman	2	5	0	2	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9	1	10	0	1	10	0
Schoolmaſter	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9	1	10	0			
Captain's Clerk	2	5	0	2	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9						
Quarter-maſter	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Quarter-maſter's mate	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	5	0
Boatſwain	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Boatſwain's mate	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Yeoman of the Sheets	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	6	0
Coxſwain	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	6	0
Maſter ſail maker	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	14	0	1	12	0	1	10	0
Sail-maker's mate	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	8	0
Sail-maker's crew	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0
Gunner	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Gunner's mate	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Yeo. of powder room	1	15	0	1	15	0	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	6	0
Quarter Gunner *	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0
Armourer	2	5	0	2	0	0	1	17	6	1	13	9	1	10	0	1	10	0
Armourer's mate	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	8	0	1	6	0	1	5	0
Gunſmith	1	5	0	1	5	0												
Carpenter	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Carpenter's mate	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	16	0	1	14	0	1	12	0	1	10	0
Carpenter's crew	1	6	0	1	6	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0
Purſer	4	0	0	3	10	0	3	0	0	2	10	0	2	5	0	2	0	0
Steward	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	3	4	1	0	8	1	0	0
Steward's mate	1	0	8	1	0	8	1	0	8	1	0	8						
Cook	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	5	0	1	4	0
Surgeon †	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	5	0	0
Surgeon's firſt mate	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0
—— ſecond mate	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0	2	10	0			
—— third mate	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0									
—— fourth and fifth	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	0									
Chaplain ‡	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0	0	19	0						

* *One to every four guns.*

† *Beſides 2d. a month for each man.*

‡ *Beſides 4d. a month from each man.*

In a country like England, where the intrinſic value of ſilver is nearly equal, and in ſome coins, crown pieces particularly, ſuperior to the nominal, the coinage of ſilver money is a matter of great conſequence; and yet the preſent ſtate of the national currency ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſix-pences; the intrinſic value of the latter being, as to many of them, worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public loſing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but they are not generally current; nor is any ſilver coin that is lower than ſix-pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II's reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The title of the king of England, is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England was formerly, his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of majeſty; but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of Defender of the Faith above mentioned was given to Henry VIII. by the pope, on account of a book written by the king againſt Luther, and the Reformation. To the titles already given, the king of Great Britain has others from his German dominions, as Elector of Hanover, Duke of Brunſwick, Lunenburg, &c.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great Britain, anno 1714, the royal atchievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the firſt grand quarter, *Mars, three lions paſſant guardant, in pale, Sol*, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are *Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure flowered, and counterflowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The ſecond quarter is the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The third, the enſigns of Ireland; which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed Luna.* And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions paſſant, guardant, Sol*, for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburgh, which is, *Sol, ſemée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter*; having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horſe currant Luna, ente* (or grafted) *in baſe*; and *in a ſhield ſurtout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particular badge or cogniſance: ſometimes a white hart; ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes; and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter, many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contradiſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland.

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon, are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the moſt honourable in England, was inſtituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always the king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, ſuppoſed to be the titular ſaint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, ſuſpended from a blue ribband, which was for-

merly worn about their necks, but ſince the latter end of James I. croſſes their bodies from the ſhoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was deſigned as an enſign of unity and combination; on it is embroidered the words, *Honi ſoit qui mal y penſe*, "Evil to him who evil thinks." Authors are divided as to the original of that motto; but it probably alluded to the bad faith of the French king John, Edward's contemporary; the latter thereby declaring the equity of his own intention, and retorting ſhame on any who ſhould think ill of the enterprize he had engaged in to ſupport his right to the crown of France. This order is ſo reſpectable, that ſome of the moſt illuſtrious foreign princes have been companions of it. It has a prelate, who is the biſhop of Wincheſter, and a chancellor, who is the biſhop of Saliſbury for the time being. It has likewiſe a regiſter, who is dean of Windſor, and a principal king at arms, called Garter, whoſe office it is to marſhal and manage the ſolemnities at the inſtallation, and feaſts of the knights. The place of inſtallation is Edward III's chapel at Windſor, on which occaſion the knights appear in magnificent robes, appropriated to their order, and in their collars of SS. The collar and cap and feathers were introduced by Henry VIII. and to the croſs of the order encompaſſed with the garter worn on the left ſide of their coat, Charles II. added a ſilver ſtar of eight points.

Knights of the BATH, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to have been inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399, but the order ſeems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other ſolemn occaſions, and they wear a ſcarlet ribband hanging from the left ſhoulder, with an enamelled medal the badge of the order, a roſe iſſuing from the dexter ſide of a ſceptre, and a thiſtle from the ſiniſter, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in unum*, "Three joined in one." This order being diſcontinued was revived by king George I. on the 18th of May, 1725, and the month following eighteen noblemen and as many commoners were inſtalled knights of the order, with great ceremony, at Weſtminſter, where the place of inſtallment is Henry VIIth's chapel. Their robes are ſplendid and ſhewy, and the number of knights is undetermined. The biſhop of Rocheſter is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewiſe a regiſter and other officers.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarcely be ſaid to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counſellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland: but at preſent their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback; a rank of no mean eſtimation in ancient armies, and entitling the party himſelf to the appellation of *Sir*. In the common laws they are called milites or ſoldiers; and they are made, by the king laying a ſword upon their ſhoulders, and deſiring them to riſe by the title of *Sir*. It is a mark of perſonal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not deſcend to poſterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; ſuch as thoſe of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now diſuſed. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portſmouth, the king conferred the honour

of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the ſupporters.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *eſquire*, which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any perſon, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but is at preſent app ied promiſcuouſly to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade, and even a tradeſman, if he is a juſtice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, ſo late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and confirmed by the king, by putting about the party's neck a colour of SS. and giving him a pair of ſilver ſpurs. Gower the poet appears from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an eſquire by creation. Serjeants-at-law, and other ſerjeants belonging to the king's houſehold, juſtices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and phyſic, take place of other eſquires; and it is remarkable, that all the ſons of dukes, marquiſes, earls, viſcounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than eſquires, though commonly deſigned by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all Engliſh honour; for every nobleman is preſumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the firſt inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore: a ſuppoſition founded upon their evident conformity in language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, meditated the conqueſt of Britain, the natives were much connected with the Gauls, and other people of the continent. Cæſar wrote the hiſtory of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vaſt difficulties, and attended by ſuch advantages over the iſlanders that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from the ſubſequent hiſtory of Britain, that his victories were incomplete and indeciſive; nor did the Romans receive the leaſt advantage from his expeditions but a better knowlege of the iſland than they had before. The Britons at that period were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories lay in Hertfordſhire, and ſome of the adjacent counties, was the head: and this form of government long continued among them.

In their manner of life, as deſcribed by Cæſar and the beſt authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; they ſowed corn, but chiefly ſubſiſted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was ſkins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were incredibly dexterous in the management of their chariots; and they fought with lances, darts, and ſwords. Women ſometimes led their armies to the field, and were recogniſed as ſovereigns of their particular diſtricts. They favoured a primogeniture or ſeniority, in their ſucceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluiſh or greeniſh caſt; and they are ſaid to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their ſkins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themſelves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original huſband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæſar, about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, undertook an expedition in perſon, in which he ſeems

to have been ſucceſsful. His conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, though a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans. The former was taken priſoner after a deſperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times. Boadicea being oppreſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name, and defeated, diſdained to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after ſubduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland, where his ſucceſſors had no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this iſland, they erected thoſe walls I have ſo often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts: and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and cuſtoms, became familiar in Britain. There ſeems to be no great foundation for this aſſertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans conſidered Britain chiefly as a nurſery for their armies, on account of the ſuperior ſtrength of body and courage of the inhabitants. That this was the caſe appears plainly enough from the defenceleſs ſtate of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that iſland. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a ſtate of great vaſſalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives made a brave reſiſtance againſt thoſe tyrants of nations. The Roman emperors and generals while in this iſland, aſſiſted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the ſouthern Britons retired northwards), and they appeared to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the ſouthern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of thoſe barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itſelf*, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the Britiſh youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire. As the Roman forces decreaſed in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always oppoſed the progreſs of the Romans in this iſland, advanced the more boldly into the ſouthern parts, carrying terror and deſolation over the whole country. The effeminated Britons were ſo accuſtomed to have recourſe to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored their return. But the Romans, at length reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with diſtant expeditions, acquainted the Britons that they muſt no longer look to them for protection, and exhorted them to arm in their own defence; and that they might leave the iſland with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in rebuilding with ſtone the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and having done this good office, took their laſt farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been maſters of the moſt fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invaſion of Julius Cæſar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the iſland finally deſerted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inſpire. The poor Britons, like a helpleſs family deprived of their parent and protector, already ſubdued by their own fears, had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over their miſerable epiſtle for relief (ſtill upon record), which was addreſſed in theſe words: *To Aetius, thrice conſul: The groans of the Britons*; and, after other lamentable com-

* See the Introduction.

plaints

plaints, ſaid, *That the barbarians drove them to the ſea, and the ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of periſhing by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief: Gildas, who was himſelf a Briton, deſcribes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful ſtrains, and gives ſome confuſed hints of their officers, and the names of ſome of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Danmonii*, by whoſe advice the Britons ſtruck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the Engliſh Channel, and their native countries comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts, and had the iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo alluring, that in a very little time Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement for themſelves: and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom after a violent ſtruggle of near 150 years, they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and deſcendants ſtill remain.

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we know but little of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration. Nennius, who ſeems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions indeed a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected hiſtory. We can therefore only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieſſin, whoſe works are ſaid to be extant, with others of leſs note. After many repeated bloody wars, in which the Britons were ſometimes the enemies and ſometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons became maſters of all England to the ſouth of Adrian's, or rather Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts ſeem to have been maſters of all the territory to the north, though they ſuffered the Britons, who had been driven into their territories, to be governed by their own tributary kings; an intermixture that has created much confuſion in hiſtory.

I have already given a ſketch of the conſtitution and government which the Saxons imported into England, and which form by far the moſt valuable part of their ancient hiſtory. We have no account of their converſion to Chriſtianity but from Popiſh writers, who generally endeavour to magnify the merits of their ſuperiors. According to them, Ethelbert king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being deſcended from Hengiſt one of the firſt invaders, married the king of France's daughter, and ſhe being a Chriſtian, pope Gregory the Great ſeized that opportunity to enforce the converſion of her huſband to Chriſtianity, or rather to Popery. For that purpoſe, about the year 596, he ſent over to England the famous Auſtin, the monk, who probably found no great difficulty in converting the king and his people, and alſo Sebert, king of the Eaſt Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then, by his maſter's orders, attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Eaſter; but finding a ſtout reſiſtance on the part of the biſhops and clergy, he perſuaded his Chriſtian converts to maſſacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 prieſts and monks, and reduced the Britons, who were found in the heptarchy, to a ſtate of ſlavery, which ſome think gave riſe to the ancient villenage in England. Auſtin is accounted the firſt archbiſhop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did ſoon after.

It

It does not fall within my deſign to relate the ſeparate hiſtory of each particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is ſufficient to ſay, that the pope in Auſtin's time ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by prieſts and monks; and, as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days: no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina, king of the Weſt Saxons, in other reſpects a wiſe and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings to the ſee of Rome was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, becauſe paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad Vincula*, Auguſt 1ſt*.

The Anglo-Saxon kings, during the heptarchy, commonly choſe one who was to be the head of their political confederacy, for regulating their concerns, but without any juriſdiction in the dominion of others. The clergy, we may eaſily ſuppoſe, had great influence on thoſe occaſions; and the hiſtory of the Saxon heptarchy is little more than that of crimes, treaſons, and murders, committed at the inſtigation of prieſts and monks. Even their criminal law, as hath been already obſerved, admitted of a pecuniary compenſation for murder, and regicide itſelf.

Under all thoſe diſadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happier than the nations on the continent; being free from the invaſion of the Saracens, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time to Ina, king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l. ſterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but ſuperſtitious Bede, about the year 740, compoſed his Church Hiſtory of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. Architecture, ſuch as it was, with ſtone and glaſs-working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver-plate. It muſt however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England when, about the year 800, moſt of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain. On the ſubmiſſion of the Northumbrians, in the year 827, he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France and emperor of Germany; and I have, in a former part of this work, mentioned the commercial treaty between him and Offa, king of Mercia, to whom he ſent in a preſent a Hungarian ſword, a belt, and two ſilken veſts. Egbert had been obliged by

* This tax, was impoſed at firſt for the ſupport of a college at Rome for the education of Engliſh youth, founded by Ina, king of Weſſex, under the name of *Rome-Scat*, but in proceſs of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his ſucceſſors.

ſtate jealouſies to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga, daughter of Offa, wife to Birthric, king of the Weſt Saxons. At the court of Charles he acquired the arts both of war and government. His proſperity excited the envy of the northern nations, who, under the name of Danes, then infeſted the ſeas, and were no ſtrangers to the coaſts of England; for about the year 833 they made deſcents upon Kent and Dorſetſhire, where they defeated Egbert in perſon, and carried off abundance of booty to their ſhips. About two years after they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Corniſh Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838 at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time England had become a ſcene of deſolation, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwolf, after ſome time bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) are ſo prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they ſhew his brain to have been touched by his devotion, or guided by the arts of Swithin, biſhop of Wincheſter. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſts, and the fineſt counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven battles with the Danes with various ſucceſs, and when defeated he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon ſtate of diſtreſs, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cowherd. He ſtill however kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes who had been ſettled in it to ſwear obedience to his government.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign was that of raiſing a maritime power, by which he ſecured his coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into diſuſe ſince the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a ſcholar but an author: and he tells us, that upon his acceſſion to the throne, he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick buildings in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his ſubjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in Eaſt India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Octher, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia; and he tells the king in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the Norway coaſt ſo far north as commonly the whale hunters uſe to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and uſeful allies, againſt the Danes, in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald. He is ſaid to have fought no leſs than fifty-ſix pitched battles. He

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was inexorable againſt his corrupt judges, whom he uſed to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely amiable and heroic, that he is juſtly dignified with the epithet of the Great.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invaſions. He died in the year 925, and was ſucceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. This prince, to encourage commerce, enacted, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a *thane*, or *nobleman* of the firſt rank. He cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of coining money. His dominions were confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill kept a footing in thoſe counties. He was ſucceſsful in his wars with the Scots, and died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſſors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or diſgraced by the influence of prieſts. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is ſaid to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vaſſals, he ſitting at the helm; but, like his predeceſſors, he was the ſlave of prieſts, particularly St. Dunſtan. His reign however was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tine. He was ſucceeded, in 975, by his eldeſt ſon Edward, who was barbarouſly murdered by his ſtep-mother, whoſe ſon Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The nation was at that time haraſſed by the Danes. To get rid of them Ethelred agreed to pay them 30,000l. which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the firſt land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made ſuch ſettlements in England, that Ethelred conſented to a general maſſacre of them by the Engliſh. But this atrocious deſign ſerved only to enrage the Daniſh king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two ſons out of England into Normandy, a province of France, facing the ſouth eaſt coaſt of England, at that time governed by its own princes, ſtyled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the Great; but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vaſt army, and obliged Edmund Ironſide (ſo called for his great bodily ſtrength), Ethelred's ſon, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being aſſaſſinated, Canute ſucceeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his ſon Harold Harefoot did nothing memorable, and his ſucceſſor Hardicanute was ſo degenerate a prince, that the Daniſh royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, commonly called the Confeſſor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, a weak youth, being deſcended from an elder branch, had the lineal right. Edward the Confeſſor was a ſoft, good natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and exceſſively fond of the Normans, with whom he had reſided. He was governed by his miniſter earl Goodwin, and his ſons, the eldeſt of whom was Harold. He durſt not reſent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment of him. It is ſaid, that he deviſed the ſucceſſion of his crown to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain that, upon the death of the Confeſſor, in the year 1056, Harold, ſon to Goodwin, earl of Kent, mounted the throne.

William duke of Normandy, though a baſtard, poſſeſſed that great duchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to the crown of England. For that purpoſe, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vaſſals, to join him, and made liberal promiſes to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to aſſiſt him effectually. By theſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and moſt

regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarraſſed with freſh invaſions of the Danes, William landed in England without oppoſition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Haſtings now ſtands, in Suſſex, and a moſt bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

Few improvements, either in arts or arms, were made by the Saxons in England ſince the firſt invaſion of the Danes. Theſe barbarians ſeem to have carried off with them almoſt all the bullion and ready money of the Anglo-Saxons; for I perceive that Alfred the Great left no more to his two daughters for their portions than 100l. each. The return of the Danes to England, and the victories which had been gained over them, had undoubtedly brought back great part of the money and bullion they had carried off: for we are told, that Harold in his laſt victory over the Danes, regained as much treaſure as twelve luſty men could carry off. We have indeed very particular accounts of the value of proviſions and manufactures in thoſe days; a palfrey coſt 1s. an acre of land (according to biſhop Fleetwood, in his Chronicon Pretioſum) 1s. a hide of land containing 120 acres 100s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard of money, though many ingenious treatiſes have been written on that head. A ſheep was eſtimated at 1s. an ox was computed at 6s. a cow at 4s. a man at 3l. The board wages of a child the firſt year was 8s. The tenants of Shireburne were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in thoſe times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can ſay little, but that they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unſkilful in the mechanical atts, untamed to ſubmiſſion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and diſorder. Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military courage, which yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the Norman hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their own country, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the people in a ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad the rudiments of ſcience and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient to fight, he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the advantage of numbers was on the ſide of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William with very little farther difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and made a conſiderable alteration in the conſtitution of England, by converting lands into knight's fees *, which are ſaid to have amounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great perſons who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. To one of his favourites he gave the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his ſiſter, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conſpiracies in England. William got

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's-fee: and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

the better of all difficulties, eſpecially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's ſiſter; but not without exerciſing horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted every thing poſſible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution; though, at his coronation, he took the ſame oath that uſed to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confeſſor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains, ſlaves, and live ſtock upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king, was diſturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. In this tranſaction we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable atchievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern hiſtory. William ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour, and with incredible celerity, tranſporting a brave Engliſh army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, the ſixty-firſt of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

By the Norman conqueſt, England not only loſt the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility; who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and, what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England by virtue of the conqueſt, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans gained much of the Engliſh land and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of naval power, and multitude of ſhips, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourſe between England and the continent, gave us an increaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure to the crown and kingdom, beſides a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. For the dominion of the narrow ſeas ſeems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to thoſe who poſſeſs the banks or coaſts on both ſides; and thus the former title was confirmed, by ſo long a coaſt as that of Normandy on one ſide, and of England on the other ſide of the Channel.

The ſucceſſion of the crown of England was diſputed between the Conqueror's ſons, Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and conſequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and rebellious ſubjects. About this time the cruſades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Atheling

and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter, but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Foreſt in Hampſhire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age. He is chiefly accuſed of rapacity and oppreſſion; but the circumſtances of his reign required money, which he had no other means of raiſing but from a luxurious, over-grown clergy, who had engroſſed all the riches of the kingdom.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall as it now ſtands, and added ſeveral works to the Tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall and ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea which overflowed great part of earl Goodwin's eſtate in Kent, and formed thoſe ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

William Rufus was ſucceeded by his brother Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed the throne; firſt by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Wincheſter; ſecondly, by a charter, in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſtate, and they formed a ſeparate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulſions in England. Henry, partly by force and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and duchy of Normandy; and, with a moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; meanwhile quieting his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France; and before his death he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, in the ſeventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed, and ſeized by Stephen earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Wincheſter, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown dependent upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party until her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, having been abandoned by his partizans, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141. Being carried before Matilda, ſhe impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak, the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been likewiſe taken priſoner, upon obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 caſtles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. Stephen attempted to force them to declare his ſon Euſtace heir apparent to the kingdom; and exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

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This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay ariſtocracy, propoſed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received with joy by the Engliſh, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. He ſoon diſcovered amazing abilities for government, and had performed, in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the moſt experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered, by the privileges granted them in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a bondman or ſervant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices the inhabitants had done to his mother and himſelf.

Without being very ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were repreſented as illegal. He demoliſhed many of the caſtles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and diſorders occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not atteſted by the moſt unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the Engliſh church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his offices, and ſtill more by his popularity, ariſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal cool and politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted; which, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh ſee over the Engliſh clergy. Becket finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream, ſigned thoſe conſtitutions, till they could be ratified by the pope, who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the moſt determined ſpirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the ſee of Rome was in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy who were on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the ſubjects abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſwelled his pride, and increaſed his inſolence, till both became inſupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the firſt ſubject of his own dominions, he was heard to ſay in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who will revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurſe, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito; who, without acquainting Henry of their intentions, went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury, in the year 1171. Henry was in no condi-

condition to ſecond the blind obedience of his knights, and the public reſentment roſe ſo high, on the ſuppoſition that he was privy to the murder, that he ſubmitted to be ſcourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in conſequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually reſumed their moſt valuable poſſeſſions in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken priſoner; and, to deliver himſelf from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was alſo agreed, that liege homage ſhould be done, and fealty ſworn to Henry, without reſerve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom Henry ſhould deſire it, in the ſame manner as by his other vaſſals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewiſe obliged to render the liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewiſe diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of Ireland; and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, heireſs of Guienne and Poictou, he became almoſt as powerful in France as the French king himſelf and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom. In his old age he was unhappy, having embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Roſamond. His infidelity was reſented by his queen Eleanor, even to the ſeducing her ſons, Henry (whom his father had unadviſedly cauſed to be crowned in his own life-time), Richard, and John, in repeated rebellions, which affected their father ſo much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon in France, in the year 1189, and 57th of his age. The ſum he left in ready money at his death has perhaps been exaggerated, but the moſt moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000l. of our money.

During the reign of Henry corporation charters were eſtabliſhed all over England, by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Thoſe corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of ſilk, ſeem ſtill to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the ſilk coronation robes, made uſe of by young Henry and his queen, coſt 87 l. 10s. 4d. in the ſheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Maddox; a vaſt ſum in thoſe days. Henry introduced the uſe of glaſs windows into England, and ſtone arches in building. Malmſbury, Henry archdeacon of Huntingdon, and other hiſtorians who lived under him, are remarkable for their Latin ſtyle, which is often pure and elegant.

In this reign, and in thoſe barbarous ages, it was a cuſtom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the ſons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themſelves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houſes and plunder them, to rob and murder paſſengers, and to commit with impunity all ſorts of diſorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into ſix parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *aſſizes*, to adminiſter juſtice to the people, as is practiſed to this day

Henry ſo far aboliſhed the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeiting ſhips which had been wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or animal were alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners. This prince was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the moveable or perſonal eſtates of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy war made them ſubmit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became in following reigns an uſual method of ſupplying the neceſſities of the crown. It was the practice of ſome kings of England to repeat the ceremony of their coronation thrice a year, on aſſembling the ſtates at the three great feſtivals. Henry, after the firſt years of his reign,

reign, never renewed this ceremony, which was found to be very expenſive and very uſeleſs. None of his ſucceſſors ever revived it. Since we are here collecting ſome detached inſtances, which ſhow the genius of thoſe ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbiſhop of York and Richard archbiſhop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when eccleſiaſtics would proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's legate having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbiſhops pretended to ſit on his right hand, this queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger in the preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, was the third, but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they perſuaded him to make a moſt magnificent, but ruinous cruſade to the Holy Land, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the duke of Auſtria, who, in 1193, ſent him a priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 marks; about 300,000l. of our preſent money. According to contemporary authors, the raiſing of this ranſom proved to be a matter of ſo much difficulty, that all the church plate was melted down, and a tax was laid on all perſons, both eccleſiaſtical and ſecular, of one-fourth part of their income for one year; and twenty ſhillings on every knight's fee; alſo one year's wool borrowed of the Ciſtercians; beſides money raiſed upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; ard 2000 marks which were furniſhed by William king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure. Though all thoſe ſums are well authenticated, yet it is not eaſy to reconcile them with certain other money tranſactions of this reign, but by ſuppoſing that Richard carried off with him, and expended abroad, all the viſible ſpecie in the kingdom; and that the people had reſerved vaſt hoards, which they afterwards produced, when commerce took a briſker turn.

Upon Richard's return from captivity, he held a parliament at Nottingham; whither William king of Scotland came, and demanded the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Weſtmoreland, and Lancaſter, as his predeceſſors had enjoyed them. Richard put him off for the preſent with fair words: by advice of his council he granted William by charter the following honours and benefits for him and his ſucceſſors, viz: "That whenever a king of Scotland was ſummoned to the court of England, to do homage for the lands he held in England, he ſhould be met at the river Tweed, by the biſhop of Durham and the ſheriff of Northumberland, and they ſhould conduct him to the river Tees, where the archbiſhop and ſheriff of York ſhould receive him; and ſo in like ſort the biſhop and ſheriffs of the other ſhires, till they arrived at court. On his journey he had 100 ſhillings (15l. of our money) per day allowed him for charges. At court thirty ſhillings per day; twelve waſtels, and twelve ſimnels of the king's (two ſorts of fine bread in uſe then); four quarts of the king's beſt wine; ſix quarts of ordinary wine; two pound weight of pepper; and four pound weight of cinnamon; four wax lights; forty great long perches of the king's beſt candles; and twenty-four of the ordinary ones. And on his return he was to be conducted as before, with the ſame allowances."

Whilſt

Whilſt the Scottiſh kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their intereſt, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the ſame homage; but when they were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid no more homage*.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox ſold for three ſhillings, which anſwers to nine ſhillings of our money, and a ſheep at four pence, or one ſhilling. Weights and meaſures were now ordered to be the ſame all over the kingdom. Richard upon his return, found his dominions in great diſorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he however pardoned; and by the invaſions of the French, whom he repelled; but was ſlain in beſieging the caſtle of Chalons, in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is infamous in the Engliſh hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur, the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Conſtance, complained to Philip the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithſtanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour; but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he rendered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope, and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to ſign the great deed ſo well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunities which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured, this charter, by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarcely ſigned it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from him, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehenſive leſt their country ſhould become a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, juſt as he had a glimpſe of reſuming his authority. Without diſputing what hiſtorians have ſaid of his arbitrary, inconſtant, and cruel diſpoſition, it is evident, from the ſame relations, that he had great provocations from the clergy and the barons, who in their turns attempted to annihilate the regal prerogative. It is undeniable at the ſame time that, under John, the commons of England laid the foundation of all the wealth and privileges they now enjoy; and the commerce of England received a moſt ſurpriſing increaſe. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he eſtabliſhed and endowed all over his kingdom; and it was under him that the ſtone bridge, as it ſtood ſome years ago, was finiſhed acroſs the Thames at London. The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him. The office of

* It appears however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his ſubjects, conſented to acknowledge the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their ſovereigns and liege lords, and that they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly: but this advantage was given up by Richard I. *Vide* Lord Lyttelton's Hiſtory of Henry II. vol. v. p. 220, 223, 225: 8vo. edit.

mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuſe a mayor out of their own body annually, and to elect their ſheriffs and common council annually, as at preſent.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years old. The earl of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died in 1219, and the regency devolved upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The French king all this time kept poſſeſſion of Normandy; but at home the power of the pope became exorbitant; and he ſent no fewer than 300 of his rapacious clergy, in the year 1240, to take poſſeſſion of the beſt Engliſh benefices, and to load the people with taxes. This evil was increaſed by the marriage of Henry with the daughter of the earl of Provence, a needy prince, whoſe poor relations engroſſed the beſt eſtates and places in the kingdom. The king was of a ſoft, pliable diſpoſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he ſeemed always endeavouring to evade the privilege which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An aſſociation of the barons was formed againſt him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons and foreign mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his ſiſter, and was made earl of Leiceſter, being choſen general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldeſt ſon, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling as many as he could of his father's ſubjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Eveſham, Auguſt 4, 1265, and killed Montfort. The repreſentatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgeſſes, now formed part of the Engliſh legiſlature, in a ſeparate houſe; and before this reign hiſtorians are not agreed as to the office or powers of this branch of the parliament. Prince Edward being engaged in a cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in 1272, the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet to the ſtruggles at that time the people in great meaſure owe the liberties of the preſent day. During his reign, the principal cuſtoms aroſe from the importation of French and Rheniſh wines, the Engliſh being as yet ſtrangers to thoſe of Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Intereſt had in that age amounted to an enormous height: there are inſtances of 50l. per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a freſh demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to remove with their effects from the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had ſaid 300,000, I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing, and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Briſtol; and, on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent: the Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely diſuſed,

and that by *duel* diſcouraged. Bracton's famous law treatiſe was publiſhed in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted (that the reader may have ſome idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats (ſee Rymer's Fœdera). Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the ſolemnity, and on the occaſion 500 horſes were let looſe, for all that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations and reformations of his laws, have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He paſſed the famous mortmain act, whereby all perſons "were reſtrained from giving by will or *otherwiſe*, their eſtates to (thoſe *ſo called*) religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the cinque-ports, which, though now very inconſiderable, were then obliged to attend the king, when he went beyond ſea, with fifty-ſeven ſhips, each having twenty armed ſoldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own coſts for the ſpace of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon. Though he encouraged foreigners to trade with England, yet the aggregate body of every particular nation reſiding here became anſwerable for the miſdemeanors of every individual perſon of their number. He regulated the forms of parliament as they now ſtand, with very little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his ſubjects rendered them a prey to the Jews, who were the great uſurers and money-dealers of the times, he expelled them out of England, and ſeized all their immoveable eſtates. I have, in the article of Scotland, mentioned the unjuſtifiable manner in which he aboliſhed the independency of that kingdom; but, on the other hand, it muſt be acknowledged that he held the balance of power in Europe, and employed the vaſt ſums he raiſed from his ſubjects for the aggrandizement of his crown and people. He had frequent wars abroad, eſpecially with France, in which he was not very ſucceſsful; and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons and great nobility, had the deſign been practicable.

His vaſt connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glaſſes and ſpectacles; though they are ſaid to have been invented, in the former reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the ſame time, and the regulation of gold and ſilver workmanſhip was aſcertained by an aſſay and mark of the goldſmiths' company. Edward was often embroiled with the pope, eſpecially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, the 69th year of his age and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a freſh expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be ſent to the Holy Land, with 32,000l. for the maintenance of what was called the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhewed early diſpoſitions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveſton his chief minion, a Gaſcon, being baniſhed by his father, he mounted the throne with vaſt advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, and loaded him with honours, and married Iſabella, daughter to the French king, who reſtored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had loſt in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to baniſh his favourite, and to confirm the great charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in perſon received the greateſt defeat that

England ever ſuffered, in 1314. Gaveſton being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a ſpy upon the king, but he ſoon become his favourite. Through his pride, avarice, and ambition, he was baniſhed, together with his father, who had been created earl of Wincheſter. The queen, an ambitious and worthleſs woman, perſuaded her huſband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard, and after defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of all his prerogatives. A cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes, and many noble patriots, with their eſtates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at laſt ſhe became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, and had been one of the moſt active of the anti-royaliſt lords. A breach between her and the Spencers ſoon followed, and, going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England, that, returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt; and he was moſt barbarouſly murdered in Berkeley-caſtle by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

It muſt, however, be admitted, that the misfortunes of Edward II. were in a great degree brought upon himſelf by his imprudence and miſconduct. His government was ſometimes extremely arbitrary, and he was too much engroſſed by favourites, who led him into ſanguinary meaſures. It was alſo a misfortune to him, that he was not a match for Robert Bruce, king of Scotland; in conſequence of whoſe military and political abilities, and their own civil contentions, the Engliſh loſt that kingdom. But it has been alledged in his favour, that none of his predeceſſors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and that he protected his trading ſubjects with great ſpirit againſt the Hanſeatic league and rhe neighbouring powers. Upon an average, the difference of living then and now, ſeems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that their money contained thrice as much ſilver as our money or coin of the ſame denomination does. Thus, for example, if a gooſe then coſt $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ that is $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ of our money, according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now coſt 3*s.* 9*d.* The Knights Templars were ſuppreſſed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer; and they endeavoured to keep poſſeſſion of their power, by executing many popular meaſures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was ſoon ſenſible of their deſigns. He ſurpriſed them in perſon at the head of a few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham. Mortimer was put to a public death, hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herſelf was ſhut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David king of Scotland, though he had married his ſiſter. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who did homage to Edward for Scotland. Upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without iſſue), who had ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it, as being the next heir male by ſucceſſion; but he was oppoſed by Edward, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter to the three laſt mentioned kings of France, and firſt in the female ſucceſſion. The former was preferred; but, the caſe being doubtful, Edward purſued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occaſion the vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable

to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no ſubordination. They and their men were equally undiſciplined and diſobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The Engliſh freemen, on the other hand, having now vaſt property to fight for, which they could call their own, knew its value, and had learned to defend it by providing themſelves with proper armour, and ſubmitting to military exerciſe and proper ſubordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, uſing it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right." At Creſſy, Auguſt 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated by 30,000 Engliſh, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but ſixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four). The loſs of the French far exceeded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe loſs conſiſted of no more than three knights, one eſquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly ſuperior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle was double that of all the Engliſh army; but the modeſty and politeneſs with which the prince treated his royal priſoners, formed the brighteſt wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy. Thus Edward had the glory to ſee two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ranſomed; David for 100,000 marks, after being eleven years in captivity, and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his miſtreſs, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince *, from his wearing that coloured armour, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him; for he died, diſpirited and obſcure, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51ſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the intereſt of Europe better than Edward did, and he was one of the moſt illuſtrious kings that ſat on the Engliſh throne. Bent on the conqueſt of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands for ſecurity to their liberties and properties; but his ambition exhauſted his regal dominions; and his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, was leſs powerful than Edward in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of eſtabliſhing the the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till this time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign ſeems to have been much the ſame as in the preceding; and few of the Engliſh ſhips, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But, notwithſtanding the vaſt increaſe of property in

* He was alſo the firſt in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father duke of Cornwall; and ever ſince, the eldeſt ſon of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

England, villenage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed whether Edward made uſe of artillery in his firſt invaſion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent caſtle of Windſor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people in that age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contract and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time; they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune; which was a great allurement to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter carpenter was limited through the whole year to three pence a day, a common carpenter to two pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe, a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began, in the latter end of this reign, to ſpread the doctrines of reformation by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples of all ranks. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his ſearch into the ſcriptures, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century. But, though many ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reſerved for a more free and enquiring age, that aboliſhed Romiſh ſuperſtition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. He had many friends in the univerſity of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected againſt the evil deſigns of the pope and biſhops, by John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter, one of the king's ſons, and other great men. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. ſon of the Black Prince, was only eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful both in France and Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, the lower ranks of people. The truth is, that agriculture was then in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate, that corn, and other victuals, were ſuffered to be tranſported, and the Engliſh had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they ſeem from records to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the loweſt of the people. The conduct of theſe inſurgents was very violent, and in many reſpects extremely unjuſtifiable; but it cannot be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppreſſions, particularly a *poll tax*, and had abundant reaſon to be diſcontented with the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen, but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the ſtorm of the inſurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth, the mayor, and Philpot, an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death, in the midſt of his adherents. This, with the ſeaſonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the inſurrection for that time; but it broke out with the moſt bloody effects in other parts of England: and, though it was ſuppreſſed by making many examples of ſeverity among the inſurgents, yet the

the common people never afterwards loſt ſight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained thoſe privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the ſuppreſſion of thoſe inſurgents, have eſtabliſhed the tranquillity of his dominions on a ſure foundation; but he delivered himſelf up to worthleſs favourites, particularly Michael de la Pole, ſon to a merchant of London, whom he created earl of Suffolk and lord chancellor, judge Treſilian, and, above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created marquis * of Dublin and duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people, and Richard ſtooped in vain to the moſt ignoble meaſures to ſave them. They were attainted, and condemned to ſuffer as traitors. The chief juſtice Treſilian was hanged at Tyburn, but de la Pole and the duke of Ireland eſcaped abroad, where they died in obſcurity. Richard then aſſociated to himſelf a new ſet of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Glouceſter the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being inſincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more deſpotic than any king of England had ever been when he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard baniſhed them both, with particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaſter by his father's death. Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a ſtrong party was formed in England, the natural reſult of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaſter the crown. He landed from France at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them Engliſh. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refuſing to fight, and his ſubjects, whom he had affected to deſpiſe, generally deſerting him, he was made priſoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and miſconduct; and ſoon after he is ſuppoſed to have been ſtarved to death in priſon, in the year 1399, the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no iſſue by either of his marriages.

Though the nobility of England were poſſeſſed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonſtrate boldly in parliament againſt the uſury, which was but too much practiſed in England, and other abuſes of both clergy and laity; and the deſtruction of the feudal powers ſoon followed.

Henry the Fourth †, ſon of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. being ſettled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him by the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Glouceſter and Saliſbury, and the archbiſhop of York; but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was underſtood by the Percy family, the greateſt in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle, and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumber-

* The firſt who bore the title of marquis in England.

† The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaſter ſtepped forth, and having croſſed himſelf on his forehead and on his breaſt, and called upon the name of Chriſt, he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, becauſe of their ſingularity.

In the name of Fadher, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, I Henry of Lancaſter, challenge this rewme of Yinglande, and the croun, with all the membris, and the appurtenances; als I that am deſcendit by right line of the blode (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *coming from the gude king Henry therde and throge that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, with helpe of kyn, and of my friendes, to recover it; the which rewme was in point to be endone by default of governance, and ondoying of the gude lawes.*

land,

land, and his ſon the famous Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to remedy the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a priſoner into Henry's hands about this time, was of infinite ſervice to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which had till then diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly increaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden, carrying on trade in various parts, particularly with the Hanſe towns. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is, however, a little ſurpriſing, that learning was at this time at a much lower paſs in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me;" or, "As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt I have ſubſcribed." By the influence of the court and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the ſeſſions of parliament 1401 for the burning of heretics, occaſioned by the great increaſe of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtree, pariſh-prieſt of St. Oſithe, in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and ſheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413, ſo greatly had luxury increaſed. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were exceſſively numerous, and ſir John Oldcaſtle, lord Cobham, having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundleſs accuſation, from the bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in conſequence of it. His only real crime ſeems to have been the ſpirit with which he oppoſed the ſuperſtition of the age, and he was the firſt of the nobility who ſuffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a conteſt with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces, that had been ravaged from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the reign of Edward III. and availing himſelf of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled the glory of Creſſy and Poictiers, but exceeded them in its conſequences, on account of the vaſt number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were ſlain. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French among themſelves ſo effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whoſe huſband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princeſs Catherine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her huſband's life, and him and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy, which muſt at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king ſtill continued Henry's captive) furniſhed the dauphin with effectual ſupplies, and preſerved the French crown for his head.

Henry,

Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might cruſh the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been ſucceſsful, had he not died of a pleuritic diſorder, 1422, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,7141. a year, which is nearly the ſame with the revenues in Henry III.'s time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the courſe of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted to 52,507 l. ſo that the king had of ſurplus only 3207l. for the ſupport of his houſehold, for his wardrobe, for the expence of embaſſies, and other articles. This ſum, though money of the ſame denomination then contained thrice as much ſilver as it does at preſent, was not nearly ſufficient even in time of peace; and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miſerable ſhifts: he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels and ſometimes the crown itſelf; he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to ſtop in the midſt of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention theſe particulars, that the reader may judge of the ſimplicity and temperance of our predeceſſors three centuries ago, when the expences of the greateſt king in Europe were ſcarcely equal to the penſion of a ſuperannuated courtier of the preſent age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaſter houſe to the throne of England. Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, was no more than nine months old, when, in conſequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, both of them princes of great accompliſhments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preſerve their brother's conqueſts. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conqueſt of France. The ſiege was raiſed by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in hiſtory, ſhe being born of the loweſt extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and ſometimes a helper in ſtables at public inns. She muſt, notwithſtanding, have poſſeſſed an amazing fund of ſagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in making a ſally during the ſiege of Compiegne, and burnt alive for a witch at Roan, May 30, 1431.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and the loſs of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the amazing courage of Talbot, the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high ſpirit, but an implacable diſpoſition; while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England, if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of his country, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngeſt ſon;

and

and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe, that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right, but acted at firſt with profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, and a profeſſed enemy to the duke of York; but, being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip, by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of 20,000 Kentiſh men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France proved advantageous to the duke of York, and, upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobility his friends; but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſſed the moſt profound reverence to Henry.

The perſons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England, and his vaſt abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, aſſembled an army; but the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom; but it was not long before the queen reſumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakneſs became every day more and more viſible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the maſk, and, in 1459, openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the King-maker. A parliament being aſſembled, it was enacted, that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne for life, but that the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. The queen alone rejected this compromiſe. She retreated northwards, and the king being ſtill a priſoner, ſhe pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that aſſembling a freſh army, ſhe fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and ſlain in 1460.

It is remarkable, that though the duke of York and his party openly aſſerted his claim to the crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's ſon, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and, defeating the earl of Warwick in the ſecond battle of St. Alban's, delivered her huſband; but the diſorders committed by her northern troops diſguſted the Londoners ſo much, that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her huſband were obliged to retreat northward. She ſoon raiſed another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the moſt bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both ſides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her huſband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

This civil war was carried on with uncommon animoſity. Margaret was as blood-thirſty as her opponents, and when priſoners of either ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially if they were perſons of rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the conceſſions ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a freſh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at laſt her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried priſoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of ſir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl, deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's beſt friend became his moſt formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner, but eſcaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid (but with no great ſhew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward being now ſettled on the throne, was guilty of the utmoſt cruelty to all the Lancaſtrian party, whom he put to death, wherever he could find them.

The great object of his vengeance was Henry, earl of Richmond. He was deſcended from John Beaufort the eldeſt ſon of the earl of Somerſet, who was the eldeſt ſon of John of Gaunt, by his laſt wife Catherine Swineford, but born in adultery, during her huſband's life-time. This diſability, however, was afterwards removed both by the pope and by the parliament, and the deſcendants of John of Gaunt, by that lady, as far as could be done, were declared legitimate. The laſt lord, John, duke of Somerſet, left a daughter, Margaret, who was married to Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, ſon of the widow of Henry V. by Owen Tudor, a Welſh gentleman whom ſhe had condeſcended to marry; and their ſon was Henry, earl of Richmond (afterwards Henry VII.), who then lived in France, to ſecure himſelf from the cruelty of Edward. The reader may ſee, from the detail of this important genealogy, that the young earl of Richmond had not the ſmalleſt claim in blood (even ſuppoſing the illegitimacy of his anceſtors had been removed) to the crown of England.

In 1474, the kingdom was in a deplorable ſituation. The king was immerſed in expenſive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his great men; who, to ſupport their extravagancies, became penſioners to France. The parliament ſeemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The beſt blood in England was ſhed on ſcaffolds; and even the duke of Clarence fell a victim to his brother's jealouſy. Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expences of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat with France; but his irregularities occaſioned his death (1483), in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was contrived by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandiſe; but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe.

poſe. The invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate. The lord Tiptoft was its chief patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are moſtly re-tranſlations, or compilations from the French or Monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progreſs among the Engliſh than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the common pleas, and Forteſcue, chancellor of England, flouriſhed at this period.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with little prudence, and nobilitated many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle the duke of Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's want of popularity among the great men, found means to baſtardize her iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a precontract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having firſt put to death all the great men whom he thought well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower by his direction, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and by offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops: but they were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard after diſplaying the moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

There can ſcarcely be a doubt but that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by hiſtorians. He was exemplary in his diſtributive juſtice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whoſe oppreſſion he aboliſhed, and was a father to the common people. He founded the ſociety of heralds; an inſtitution, which, in his time, was found neceſſary to prevent diſputes among great families. During his reign, ſhort as it was, we have repeated inſtances of his relieving cities and corporations that had gone into decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures, and for preventing their importation into England, no fewer than ſeventy-two different kinds being prohibited by one act. He was the firſt Engliſh king who appointed a conſul for the ſuperintendency of Engliſh commerce abroad; one Strozzi being nominated for Piſa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Engliſhmen imported to or exported from thence.

Though the act of baſtardy obtained by Richard affected the daughters as well as the ſons of his brother, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaſter earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending families of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, reſted his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He

was the moſt ſagacious monarch that had ever reigned in England; but, at the ſame time, the moſt jealous of his power; for he ſhut up the earl of Warwick, ſon to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. a cloſe priſoner in the Tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alledged againſt him but his propinquity to the houſe of York. He was the firſt who inſtituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and in imitation of his predeceſſor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges aſſumed by the barons, in aboliſhing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, on aſſuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his perſon. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were eaſily ſuppreſſed; as was the impoſture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the impriſoned earl of Warwick: Simnel was taken priſoner, and after being employed in the king's kitchen, was made one of his falconers. The deſpotic court of ſtar-chamber owed its original to Henry; but, at the ſame time, it muſt be acknowledged, that he paſſed many acts, eſpecially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his ſubjects. They expreſſed their gratitude by the great ſupplies and benevolence they afforded him, and, as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act paſſed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed intereſt were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its conſequences, is perhaps the moſt important act that ever paſſed in an Engliſh parliament, though its tendency ſeems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increaſe of trade, and the diſcovery of America, had broken with irreſiſtible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the eſtates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were ſoon extinguiſhed.

Henry, after encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain that many of the Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public ſatisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland baniſhed Perkin his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldeſt daughter, yet, by the kind manner in which he entertained and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. It is ſaid, that Perkin made a confeſſion of his impoſtures before his death; but if he did, it might have been extorted from him, either upon the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterling, which is equivalent to five millions

lions at preſent; ſo that he may be ſuppoſed to have been maſter of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of repleniſhing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament into ſubſidies for foreign alliances, which he intended not to purſue.

I have already mentioned the vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitution of England during Henry VII's reign. His exceſſive love of money and avarice was the probable reaſon why he did not become maſter of the Weſt Indies, he having the firſt offer of the diſcovery from Columbus, whoſe propoſals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain. Henry, however, made ſome amends by encouraging Cabot a Venetian, who diſcovered the main land of North-America, in 1498; and we may obſerve, to the praiſe of this king, that ſometimes in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants ſums of money without intereſt, when he knew that their ſtock was not ſufficient for thoſe enterprizes which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Maddox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle muſt have been prodigiouſly advanced before Henry's death; an inſtance of this is given in the caſe of lady Anne, ſiſter to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week, for her exhibition, ſuſtentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; alſo for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms, (in all eight perſons) 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet and clothing: and for the maintenance of ſeven horſes yearly, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horſe 2l. 17s. 0d. $\frac{1}{2}$ yearly, money being then 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ times as weighty as our modern ſilver coin. Wheat ſold that year at 3s. 4d. a quarter, which anſwers to 5s. of our money, conſequently it was about ſeven times as cheap as at preſent.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, unrivalled maſter of the throne, he might have held the balance of power in Europe, had he been careful to improve his advantages. Imagining he ſtood not in need of a ſupply, he improved not Cabot's diſcoveries, but ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of France. Theſe projects, and his eſtabliſhing what is properly called a *navy royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure), led him into incredible expences. He was on all occaſions the dupe of the emperor Maximilian, the pooreſt prince in Europe; and early in his reign he gave himſelf alſo entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolſey, the ſon of a butcher at Ipſwich, but educated at Oxford, and made dean of Lincoln by Henry VII. While involved in a war with France, his lieutenant, the earl of Surrey, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland, who had invaded England; and Henry became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy, but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of both parties, and to pay great part of their expences till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burthens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the Reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romiſh church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, "of the *Seven Sacraments*," about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but about

the year 1527, he began to have ſome ſcruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I ſhall not ſay, how far on this occaſion he might be influenced by ſcruples of conſcience, or averſion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained a divorce from Rome. The difficulties he met with in this proceſs ruined Wolſey, who died heart-broken at being ſtript of his immenſe power and poſſeſſions.

A perplexing, though nice conjunction of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon, the church of Rome, and to bring about a Reformation; in which, however, many of the Romiſh errors and ſuperſtitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of his queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations; and in many reſpects he acted in the moſt arbitrary manner, his wiſhes, however unreaſonable, being too rapidly complied with, in conſequence of the ſhameful ſervility of his parliaments. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and immenſe wealth that came to Henry, by ſeizing all the eccleſiaſtical property in the kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition; ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood of England was ſhed on ſcaffolds. Among others, was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves: he diſliked her ſo much, that he ſcarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, ſuffered her to reſide in England on a penſion of 3000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was Catharine Par, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after ſhe had narrowly eſcaped being brought to the ſtake for her religious opinions, which favoured the Reformation. Henry's cruelty increaſed with his years, and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on Proteſtants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered the next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th year of his reign.

By the help of printing, the reign of Henry VIII. is better known than that of his predeceſſors. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England is highly commendable; and he ſometimes employed his unjuſt and arbitrary power for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that had the Reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws, and the courts of juſtice, it probably could never have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; and whatever Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus, the greateſt ſcholar of his age. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houſes began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though, upon the whole, rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pure reformation.

In

In his reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was erected into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king inſtead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years old at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend of the Reformation, and a bitter enemy to the ſee of Rome. Much of the popiſh leaven, however, ſtill remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms; a meaſure which the late king had recommended with his dying breath to his executors. The protector defeated the Scots at Pinkey, but the match never took place; and the factions now forming againſt the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies; and, ſhe dying, he made his addreſſes to the princeſs Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a handle to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the Reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vaſt relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and being ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in his reign. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was upon the whole a weak, but conſcientious man, was firſt driven from the helm of ſtate, and then loſt his head upon a ſcaffold. Dudley, who was created duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward, who, though young, meant extremely well, and was a ſincere Proteſtant, into many impolitic acts; ſo that England made but an inconſiderable figure in this reign, compared with what it had done at other periods.

The Reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, ſome of them foreign divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame, and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell and St. Thomas's hoſpitals, and alſo ſeveral ſchools which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhew the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will, for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the ducheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recognized the claim of the princeſs Mary who cut off lady Jane's head. Her huſband Lord Guildford Dudley and his father, the duke of Northumberland, ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded, like a female fury, to re-eſtabliſh popery, which ſhe did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from baniſhment, made him inſtrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Cooper, and Latimer, and many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Engliſh reformed church, were conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number of other ſacrifices of both ſexes and all ranks. Bonner, biſhop of London, and Gar-

diner, biſhop of Wincheſter, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had ſhe lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to exterminate all her Proteſtant ſubjects.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herſelf was an unfeeling bigot; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, which ſhe furniſhed to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France, and which had been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court, is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her perſecuting flames (ſays a contemporary writer of credit), were burnt to aſhes, one archbiſhop, 4 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, and 100 huſbandmen, ſervants, and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, ſpringing out of the mother's womb from the ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the fire." Several alſo died in priſon, and many were otherwiſe cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances, both at home and abroad. Popery was the eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally ſhe had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the main ſupport of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than twenty-five years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter, joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy. To mention every glorious action of her reign, would far exceed my bounds; I ſhall therefore only touch on the great lines of her government.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurpriſing facility; for in her firſt parliament, in 1559, the laws eſtabliſhing Popery were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed ſoon after. And it is obſerved, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refuſed to comply with the Reformation. With regard to her title, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the ſuppoſed murderer of the former, and her other misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had been often promiſed a ſafe and an honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner eighteen years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without ſufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head; an action which greatly tarniſhed the glories of her reign.

As to Elizabeth's affairs with Spain, which formed in fact the main buſineſs of her government, they exhibit different ſcenes of wonderful events, partly ariſing from her own maſterly conduct, partly from the ſagacity of her ſtateſmen, and partly from the intrepidity of her forces by ſea and land.

The ſame Philip, who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her, but ſhe dexterouſly avoided his addreſſes; and

and by a train of ſkilful negociations between her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy. She ſometimes ſupported the proteſtants of France againſt their perſecuting princes; and ſometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dreaded Spain, in ſuch good humour with her government, that it ſhewed no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had ſo long amuſed and baffled him, it is well known that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps had ever been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. No reader can be ſo uninformed as to be ignorant of the conſequences, that the largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they engaged; that the lord admiral Howard and the brave ſea officers under him engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days; and that the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and that few of the enemy recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, ſir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency; and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treaſures, taken from the Spaniards.

After the death of the earl of Leiceſter, the young earl of Eſſex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land-forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz, deſtroyed the ſhips in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teaſed him by her capriciouſneſs into the madneſs of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that ſhe had been betrayed into this ſanguinary meaſure, and this occaſioned a ſinking of her ſpirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

Elizabeth ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She cruſhed the papiſts in her own dominions, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In 1600 the Engliſh Eaſt India company received its firſt formation, that trade being till then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in conſequence of their having firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vaſco de Gama in the reign of Henry VII.) who at this time were ſubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had uſual recourſe to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was ſo low, that, beſides the exorbitant intereſt of 10 or 12 per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London

don join in the ſecurity. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the Grand Signior had always conceived England to be a dependent province of France. About 1590 there were in London four perſons only rated in the ſubſidy book ſo high as 400 l. In 1567 there were found, on enquiry, to be 4851 ſtrangers of all nations in London, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it; for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of Engliſhmen. The ſevere ſtatutes againſt the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conſcience, and by which many ſuffered death, muſt be condemned. Before I cloſe this ſhort account of her reign, I am to obſerve, that through the practices of the Spaniards with the Iriſh Roman catholics, ſhe found great difficulty to keep that iſland in ſubjection, and at the time of her death her government there had fallen into great diſorder.

We can ſcarcely require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional powers that had been occaſionally exerciſed by Elizabeth and the houſe of Tudor; and which various cauſes had prevented the people from oppoſing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhauſted by the long and deſtructive wars between the houſes of Lancaſter and York, in the courſe of which the ancient nobility were in a great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much rather than again involve themſelves in the miſeries of civil war. Neither did James make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as I have obſerved, diſguiſed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal ſentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffuſed through England. It is needleſs, perhaps, to point out the vaſt increaſe of property, through trade and navigation, which enabled the Engliſh at the ſame time to defend their liberties. James's firſt important meaſure was an attempt to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this, he ſhewed no violent reſentment at the diſappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gunpowder treaſon *.

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* This was a ſcheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament, when it was alſo expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be preſent. The manner of enliſting any new conſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtering the ſacrament; and this dreadful ſecret, after being religiouſly kept near 18 months, was happily diſcovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long wiſhed-for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance on parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gun-powder; and it was judged adviſeable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament; but the ſearch was purpoſely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault under the upper houſe, finding one Fawkes, whc had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeized him, and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe

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I have already taken notice, in former parts of this work, of the obligations which commerce and colonization owed to this prince; and, in fact, he laid the foundations of great national advantages. That his pedantry was ridiculous cannot be denied; and it is certain that he had no juſt ideas of the Engliſh conſtitution and liberties, which led him into many abſurd diſputes with his parliament: and he and his miniſters were continually inventing new ways to raiſe money; as by monopolies, benevolences, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he ſold the titles of baron, viſcount, and earl, at a certain price; made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay ſuch a ſum; and inſtituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095 l.

His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts, in which he ſhowed himſelf more the theologian than the prince, and in 1617 he attempted to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, it was eventually productive of many bleſſings to England; and though his perpetual negociations have given riſe to much ſatire againſt his perſon and government, yet they were leſs expenſive and deſtructive to his people than any wars he could have entered into. He reſtored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, upon their diſcharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he procured from Spain at the ſame time an acknowledgement of their independency.

James gave his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, who ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour, after that prince had loſt his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved, that he ſtrongly oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the conteſt, except the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money; and that he actually raiſed a regiment of 2200 men, under ſir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general, and that the elector hurt his own cauſe by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops inſtead of Anſpach.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was created earl of Somerſet. He married the counteſs of Eſſex, who had obtained a divorce from her huſband, and was with her found guilty of poiſoning ſir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James, contrary, as is ſaid, to a ſolemn oath he made, pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave ſir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt Indies. James having loſt his eldeſt ſon Henry prince of Wales, who

countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never exceeded 80 in number, being ſeized by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a Jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr.

had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and againſt the king's will they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was played; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought the duke of Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands: and at laſt he agreed to his ſon's marrying the princeſs Henrietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match; and it is thought that had he lived, he would have diſcarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter ſir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture, and in his reign the poetical genius of England diſplayed its greateſt luſtre, though not much encouraged at court. Mr. Middleton at this time projected the conveying water into the city from Hertfordſhire, by means of pipes, which is now called the *New River*.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princeſs Henrietta Maria. He ſeems at firſt to have been but a cold lover; and he quarrelled with, and ſent back her favourite attendants a few days after her arrival in England. But ſhe ſoon acquired a great aſcendancy over him; for ſhe was high-ſpirited and artful. She diſdained and diſliked every thing that was incompatible in government with her Italian and arbitrary education, and was a diſagreeable wife, notwithſtanding her huſband's condeſcenſion and tenderneſs. The ſpirit of the people had forced the late king into a breach with Spain, and Charles early gave ſuch indications of his partiality for Buckingham, and his own deſpotic temper, that the parliament was remiſs in furniſhing him with money for carrying on the war. In a ſhort time Buckingham perſuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots. They were ſo ill ſupported, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the proteſtant intereſt received an irrecoverable blow in France. The blame of all the public miſcarriages and diſgraces was thrown, by the almoſt unanimous voice of the parliament and people, upon the favourite; but he ſheltered himſelf from their vengeance under the royal protection, till he was aſſaſſinated by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which ſoon after ſurrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age, juſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman-uſher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much diſtinguiſhed by his love of liberty as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

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Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons would vote no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national grievances; upon which Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all underſtood, levied money upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch neceſſaries, and other obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raiſed various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne a lawyer, and Baſtwick, a phyſician, men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and reſolute, publiſhed ſeveral pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained ſome ſevere ſtrictures againſt the ruling clergy. They were proſecuted for theſe pieces in the ſtar-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and puniſhed with ſo much rigour, as excited an almoſt univerſal indignation againſt the authors of their ſufferings. Thus was the government rendered ſtill more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and in the year 1637 to introduce epiſcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England, in Auguſt 1640, where Charles was ſo ill-ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots; but neither party being ſincere in obſerving the terms, and Charles diſcovering that ſome of their great men had offered to throw themſelves under the protection of the French king, he raiſed a freſh army by virtue of his prerogative. All his preparations, however, were baffled by the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with ſo bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpoſe, that it did him no ſervice; on the contrary, it encouraged the commons to riſe in their demands. He had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, preſident of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed to be the firſt miniſter of ſtate. Strafford had been a leading member of the oppoſition to the court, but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himſelf ſo vigorouſly in carrying the king's deſpotic ſchemes into execution, that he became an object of public deteſtation. As lord preſident of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as a miniſter and privy-counſellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injuſtice and oppreſſion. He was, in conſequence, at length on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much againſt the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to ſign the warrant for his execution. Archbiſhop Laud was alſo beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a conſiderable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had paſſed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament for the future ſecurity of the ſubject. It is enacted, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or ſuch like charge without common conſent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous inſtances, ſo that an almoſt univerſal diſcontent at his adminiſtration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion alſo broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641, where the proteſtants, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or condition, to the amount of many thouſands, were maſſacred by the papiſts; and great pains were taken to perſuade the public that Charles ſecretly favoured them, out of hatred to his Engliſh ſubjects. The biſhops were expelled the houſe of peers, on account of their conſtantly oppoſing the deſigns and bills of the other houſe; and the leaders of the Engliſh houſe of commons ſtill

kept up a correſpondence with the diſcontented Scots. Charles went in perſon to the houſe of commons, January 4, 1642, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, ſir Arthur Haſelrig, and Mr. Stroud, ſhould be apprehended; but they had previouſly made their eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfaction he could make them. The city of London took the accuſed members into its protection. The train-bands were raiſed, and the mobs were ſo unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkſhire, where he raiſed an army to face that which the parliament, or rather the houſe of commons, might raiſe in and about London.

Notwithſtanding the many acts of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which the king and his miniſters had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal ſtandard. Many of the nobility and gentry and the greateſt part of the landed intereſt were much attached to the crown. The parliament, however, took upon themſelves the executive power, and were favoured by moſt of the trading towns and corporations; but their great reſource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindſey, a brave, but not an enterpriſing commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector Palatine, by his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the aſcendancy, but in the progreſs of it affairs took a different turn. The earl of Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edge-hill, in Warwickſhire, the 23d of October, 1642; both parties claimed the victory, but the parliament was ſo much diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, and they accordingly entered England anew with about 20,000 horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies were ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, and continued to carry on the war againſt him with great animoſity. The independent party which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to increaſe and to figure at Weſtminſter. They were averſe to the preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the war againſt the king, nearly as much as to the royaliſts; and ſuch was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex and Mancheſter, and the heads of the preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, on a ſuppoſition that they were not for bringing the war to a ſpeedy end, nor for reducing the king too low; and for promoting Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a preſbyterian, and ſome independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with reſentment and loſs on both ſides. Two battles were fought at Newbury; one on September 20, 1643, and the other October 27, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewiſe many other ſucceſſes; and having defeated ſir William Waller, he purſued the earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to eſcape by ſea; but his infantry ſurrendered priſoners to the royaliſts, though his cavalry delivered themſelves by their valour.

The firſt fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marſton-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Mancheſter defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken priſoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been balanced by the ſucceſſes of Charles in the Weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſtring of miſtakes, till at laſt his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were ſet on foot, and the heads of the preſbyterian party would have agreed to terms that would have little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents, who were aſſiſted by the ſtiffneſs, inſincerity, and

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unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In ſhort, the independents at laſt ſucceeded, in perſuading the members at Weſtminſter, that Charles was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royaliſts became deſperate. Sir Thomas Fairfax, whoſe father, lord Fairfax, remained in the North, was at the head of the army, which was now new modelled; ſo that Charles ſucceſſively loſt all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the deciſive battle of Naſeby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as uſual, to the miſconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by freſh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought himſelf ſafe.

The Scots were then beſieging Newark; and no good underſtanding ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh parliamentarians. In this ſituation of his affairs, Charles eſcaped in diſguiſe from Oxford and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1640, upon a promiſe of protection. The Scots, however, were ſo intimidated, by the reſolutions of the parliament at Weſtminſter, that in conſideration of receiving 400,000l. of their arrears, they put the perſon of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commiſſioners, not ſuſpecting the conſequences.

The preſbyterians were more inclined than ever to make peace with the king, but they were no longer maſters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They firſt by force took Charles out of the hands of the commiſſioners, June 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might ſtill take place with the king, they impriſoned 41 of the preſbyterian members, voted the houſe of peers to be uſeleſs, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, moſt of them officers of the army. In the mean while Charles, who unhappily promiſed himſelf relief from thoſe diſſenſions, was carried from priſon to priſon, and ſometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were ſet on foot, but all miſcarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an eſcape, to put himſelf into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the Iſle of Wight. A freſh negociation was begun, and almoſt finiſhed, when the independents, dreading the general diſpoſition of the people for peace, and ſtrongly perſuaded of the inſincerity of the king, once more ſeized upon his perſon, brought him a priſoner to London, carried him before a court of juſtice of their own erecting, and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and ſome have ſuppoſed that affliction had taught him ſo much wiſdom and moderation, that had he been reſtored to his throne he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reaſon to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the laſt, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinſtated in power. It is however certain that, notwithſtanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many, in the courſe of the civil war who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cauſe, in which they loſt their lives and fortunes. We cannot reflect upon the great loſs of lives, to the amount of at leaſt 100,000 fighting men, during the ſix years of the civil war, without admiring the populouſneſs of England at that period. Though the hiſtory has been minutely related, by writers of all parties, who had the beſt opportunities to know the truth, yet we do not find that the loſs of men had any influence upon agriculture or commerce, or the exerciſe of the common arts of life, and proviſions rather ſunk than roſe in their value. The ſurviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England; Henry, duke of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's

ther's reſtoration; the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England; and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed great abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that, after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation; and declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible at ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans.

By this time Cromwell, who hated ſubordination to a parliament, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten, for which reaſon he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueeters, and diſſolved the parliament, opprobrioufly driving the members from the houſe. He next annihilated the council of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and tranſferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons whom he ſummoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in that reſolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exerciſed greater power than had ever been annexed to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to new-model the government, and various were the ſchemes that were propoſed, eſtabliſhed, and proved abortive.

A deſire to fill his coffers made him take part with France againſt Spain. He lent the former 6000 men, who took Dunkirk, of which he kept poſſeſſion. Finding that his uſurpation gave as much diſcontent to his own party, as terror to the royaliſts, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the conſtitution, and actually erected a houſe of lords out of his own creatures. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland more deſpotically in ſome reſpects than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even thoſe few threatened to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing the character of Cromwell, have been impoſed upon by his amazing ſucceſs, and dazzled by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult his ſecretary Thurloe's, and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, that ſhe had been

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treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who, as it were, inſtantaneouſly called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any plan of legiſlation, and his ſafety was owing to the different ſentiments of government, that prevailed among the heads of the republic. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million three hundred thouſand pounds; of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year, Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and ſoccage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances, that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewiſe removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to two millions three hundred twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole it appears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, increaſed greatly in riches and in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. The famous navigation act was now planned and eſtabliſhed, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant meaſures. To the above national meliorations, we may add the modeſty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to augment their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken through the ſober maxims of the republicans; for, ſome time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many inſtances interpoſed effectually in favour of the Proteſtants abroad. Arts and ſciences were not much patronized, and yet he had the good fortune to find in Cooper an excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praiſe, and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit perſons for the ſeveral parts of adminiſtration; ſo he paid ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe entruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

No friend to the Britiſh conſtitution, conſiſting in the proper equilibrium of the three eſtates of the kingdom, can ever ſpeak of Cromwell or his uſurpation with reſpect. Under the name of a republic, there was all the tyrannical ſpirit of deſpotiſm. The people had no ſhare in legiſlation. Cromwell, with the title of Protector, exerciſed all the powers of an arbitrary monarch. His parliaments were but a name. He made what laws he pleaſed; and, by the help of his army, which ſupported them, he carried them into execution, and forced all to ſubmit to his will. In compariſon of Cromwell, Henry the VIII.th revered the Engliſh conſtitution.

Richard Cromwell, a weak unambitious man, ſucceeded his father in the protectorſhip. He was placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he was ſoon after driven, without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition, into obſcurity. It is in vain for hiſtorians of any party to aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who, with his mother and brothers, during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious ſubſiſtence) to the merits of any particular perſons. The preſbyterians were very zealous in promoting it, but it was effected by a general concurrence of the people, who ſeem to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by reſtoring the ancient

conſtitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but devoid of probity, had the ſagacity to obſerve this; and after temporizing in various ſhapes, being at the head of the army, he had the principal ſhare in reſtoring Charles II. for this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being reſtored in 1660, in the firſt year of his reign ſeemed to have a real deſire to promote his people's happineſs. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life; and in this act coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence, and that of his friends, abroad, he imported into England the culture of many uſeful vegetables; ſuch as that of aſparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the Engliſh under the auſpices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and colonization were paſſed. In ſhort, Charles knew and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence; failings that had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He appeared to intereſt himſelf in the ſufferings of his ſubjects when London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with greater luſtre and conveniences is a proof of the increaſe of trade; but there was no bounds to Charles's love of pleaſure, which led him into the moſt extravagant expences. He has been ſeverely cenſured for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. ſterling. But even in this his conduct was more defenſible than in his ſecret connections with France, which were of the moſt ſcandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and ſuch as muſt for ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk; a man of extenſive knowledge and great abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt of his other miniſters, but whom he ſacrificed to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great reſolution and ſpirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's miſapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to inſult the royal navy of England, by ſailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and deſtroyed ſeveral ſhips of the line. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States General, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, in 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

In 1671, Charles was ſo ill adviſed as to ſeize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8 per cent. and to ſhut up the Exchequer. This was an indefenſible ſtep; but Charles pretended to juſtify it by the neceſſity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a freſh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almoſt proved fatal to that republic, for the Engliſh fleet and army acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet, and diſplayed great gallantry in that ſtation. The duke of Monmouth, the eldeſt and favourite natural ſon of Charles, commanded 6000 Engliſh forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and ſome very unforeſeen circumſtances. All confidence was now loſt between Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the glory which the Engliſh fleet obtained by

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ſea againſt the Dutch. The popular clamour at laſt obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in conſideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In ſome things Charles acted very deſpotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houſes, and ordered them to be ſhut up, but in a few days after they were opened again. Great rigour and ſeverity were exerciſed againſt the preſbyterians, and all other nonconformiſts to epiſcopacy, which was again eſtabliſhed with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addreſſed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a penſioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be abſolute. It is not, however, to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increaſed, and Charles entered into many vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport.

Charles's connections in France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exaſperated againſt the French and the papiſts; at the head of whom was the king's eldeſt brother, and preſumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the proſpect of a civil war, and offered any conceſſions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon ſuch a reſolution as afterwards took place, and were ſecretly determined that the duke of York ſhould never reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and ſome others, opened a plot, charging the papiſts with a deſign to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jeſuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more ſelf-contradictory, than ſome parts of their narrative, yet it was ſupported with the utmoſt zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Strafford, Coleman, ſecretary to the duke of York, with many Jeſuits, and other Papiſts, were publickly executed on evidences, ſuppoſed now to have been perjured by thoſe who will have the whole plot to be a fiction. The queen herſelf eſcaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced, it is ſaid, that the whole was an impoſture, yielded to the torrent. At laſt it ſpent its force. The earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. He was ſeconded by the ill-adviſed duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after paſſing the commons, miſcarried in the houſe of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, ſeemed to recover the affections of his people.

The duke of York and his party made a ſcandalous uſe of their victory. They trumped up on their ſide a plot of the proteſtants for killing or ſeizing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as falſe as that which had been laid againſt the papiſts. Lord Ruſſel, who had been remarkable in his oppoſition to the popiſh ſucceſſion, Algernon Sidney, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed proteſtants were tried, condemned, and ſuffered death, and the king ſet his foot upon the neck of oppoſition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shafteſbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of ſome of his arbitrary ſteps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed ſome meaſures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he had received a large fortune in ready money, beſides the town and fortreſs of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful iſſue. The deſcendants of his natural ſons and daughters are now amongſt the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the Britiſh nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, I have been ſufficiently explicit as to the principles, both of the king and the oppoſition to his government. The heads of the latter were preſbyterians and moderate churchmen, who had been greatly inſtrumental in the civil war againſt the late king, and the uſurpations that followed. They had been raiſed and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being uſeful in bringing their party into his meaſures; and he would probably have ſucceeded, had not the remains of the old royaliſts, and the diſſipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleaſure. The preſbyterians, however, availed themſelves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervor of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament ſuch a number of their friends as rendered the reign of Charles very uneaſy, and it was owing, perhaps, to them, that civil liberty and proteſtantiſm now exiſt in the Engliſh government. On the other hand, they ſeem to have carried their jealouſy of a popiſh ſucceſſor too far; and many of the people without doors certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been ſatisfied with the legal reſtraints and diſabilities which Charles offered to impoſe upon his ſucceſſor. This gave ſuch a turn to the affections of the people as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, almoſt maſters of the laws and liberties of England; and they governed in an abſolute and arbitrary manner, ſupported by the clergy's preaching up the old doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance, and the flattering addreſſes preſented from many perſons advancing the prerogative of the crown to the moſt extravagant height.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate. The court was the nurſery of vice, and the ſtage exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England ſo well ſupplied with preachers as in this reign, which was equally diſtinguiſhed for mathematics and natural philoſophy. Charles loved, patronized, and underſtood the arts, more than he encouraged or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedneſs, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the firſt Engliſh prince who formed a body of ſtanding forces, as guards to his perſon; it ought to be remembered, at the ſame time, that he carried the art of ſhip-building to the higheſt perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his and his brother's attention to naval affairs. As to his religion, James, ſoon after his death, publiſhed to the world, that his brother, notwithſtanding his repeated profeſſions of regard to the proteſtant faith, was a papiſt and died ſuch, of which there are now inconteſtible proofs.

The oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was increaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtaniſm. The army and people ſupported him in cruſhing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and, as ſuch, had aſſumed the title of king. The duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and ſome hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn, and quartered, in the weſt of England, exhibiting a ſcene of barbarity ſcarcely ever known in this country, by the inſtrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kirke, James deſperately reſolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance. The experiment failed him. He employed the moſt offenſive meaſures for rendering popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; he inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court, openly received and admitted into his privy-council the

pope's emiſſaries, and treated them with uncommon reſpect. His impriſoning ſeven biſhops for preſenting a petition againſt reading his declaration for liberty of conſcience, greatly alarmed his proteſtant friends; and his encroachments upon the civil and religious rights of his ſubjects were diſapproved, it is ſaid, by the pope himſelf.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wiſhed well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and ſon-in-law of James, having married the princeſs Mary; he embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign to reſtore the church and ſtate to their due rights. Upon his arrival, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange. James might ſtill have reigned; but he was ſurrounded with French emiſſaries, and ignorant Jeſuits, who wiſhed him not to reign rather than not reſtore popery. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen and ſon, real or pretended, then but ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in Engliſh hiſtory is termed *the Revolution*.

This ſhort reign afforded little room for the national progreſs in its true intereſts. James is allowed, on all hands, to have underſtood them, and that, had it not been for his popiſh bigotry and arbitrary principles, he would have made a moſt excellent king. The writings of the Engliſh divines againſt popery, in this reign, are eſteemed to be the moſt maſterly pieces of controverſy that ever were publiſhed on that ſubject.

The conduct of James gave advantages to his rival, which he could not otherwiſe have hoped for. Few were in the prince's ſecret; and when a convention of the ſtates was called, there ſeemed reaſon to believe, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princeſs of Orange. Even then it was not done without long debates. It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England, at an expence never before known. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns, and he gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and ſecured; though the friends of liberty in general complained that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been inſiſted on, in a period ſo favourable to the enlargement and ſecurity of liberty, as a crown beſtowed by the free voice of the people. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found ſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore now divided, part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity, as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ſhips, according to Dr. Davenant, was that year near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increaſed to 101,032 tons. The increaſe of the cuſtoms, and the annual rental of England, grew in the ſame proportion. It was therefore no wonder, that a ſtrong party both

both in the parliament and nation, ſhould be formed againſt the government, which was hourly increaſed by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful, required an enormous expence, and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne againſt James, who there loſt all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invaſions were threatened, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government, and the ſupply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. Thoſe who were the moſt loyal gave the higheſt valuations, and were the heavieſt taxed, and this prepoſterous burthen ſtill continues; but the greateſt and boldeſt operation in finances, that ever took place, was eſtabliſhed in this reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary ſecurities, which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this ſcheme is ſaid to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Haliſax. His chief argument for ſuch a project was, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the Revolution intereſt; becauſe, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by ſupporting that intereſt, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more induſtrious.

William, notwithſtanding the vaſt ſervice he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auſpices, particularly in the eſtabliſhment of the bank of England, and the recoining the ſilver money, met with ſo many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually reſolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for that purpoſe, which he was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being ſupported in his war with France, but at laſt, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryſwick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had loſt his queen *, but the government was continued in his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the commons obliged him to diſband his army, all but an inconſiderable number, and to diſmiſs his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of ſeeing the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic meaſure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly reſented by the parliament, and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for adviſing it. It is thought that William ſaw his error when it was too late. His miniſters were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James diſcovered the inſincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his ſon king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt and moſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſing the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, on the 12th of June, 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall he had from his horſe, ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the eighth of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age,

* She died of the ſmall-pox, Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.

and

and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he ſeemed alſo ſometimes almoſt to loſe ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, for the ſupport of which he had been raiſed to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the whigs, yet he often favoured the tories. The former had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe who had acted the moſt inimical to their party, and the free principles of the conſtitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and reſume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended to ſilence all enquiries into the guilt of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in the cruel perſecutions of the paſt reign. The reſcue and preſervation of religion and public liberty were glorious to William; but England under him ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to 14,000,000.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, by virtue of the act of ſettlement, and being the next proteſtant heir to her father James II. ſucceeded to the throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has ſince been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a ſtateſman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No ſooner was he placed at the head of the Engliſh army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, and at the ſame time reſenting the partition treaty, to which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance that ſtill ſubſiſts between France and that nation. Philip's ſucceſſion was diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the Empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever by the acquiſition of the whole Spaniſh dominions.

The capital meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter, and the earl could truſt no other with that important department.

In the courſe of the war, ſeveral glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was ſoon made duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramilies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate deſtruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken priſoner, and ſent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, ſir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. The battle of Ramillies in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke

of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported it is generally ſuppoſed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 were taken priſoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, after a very bloody action, in which the French loſt 15,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, but they were balanced by great misfortunes.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the diſgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high admiral; but he entruſted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant, and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the houſe of commons were put into very bad humour, nor did things ſeem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immenſe ſums raiſed for the current ſervice of the year being ſeverely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, it appeared that England had borne the chief burden of the war; that neither the Auſtrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furniſhed their ſtipulated quotas, and that they truſted to the Engliſh parliament for making them good. A deſign for taking Toulon miſcarried through the ſelfiſhneſs of the court of Vienna, whoſe chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the ſame time, England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

Theſe and many other internal diſputes about the prerogative, the ſucceſſion, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferments in the nation and parliament. The queen at firſt ſtuck cloſe to the duke of Marlborough and his friends, who finding that the tories inclined to treat with France, put themſelves at the head of the whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents, according to their ſtations, received immenſe emoluments. The failures of the Germans and Dutch could not, however, be longer diſſembled, and the perſonal intereſt of the ducheſs of Marlborough with the queen began to be ſhaken by her own haughtineſs.

As Lewis XIV. profeſſed a readineſs for peace, and ſued earneſtly for it, the whigs at laſt gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburg, 1710. They were managed, on the part of England, by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. The French king was gradually brought to comply with all the demands of the allies, except that of employing his own troops againſt the duke of Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued ſtill doubtful. But all his offers were rejected by the duke and his aſſociate, as only deſigned to amuſe and divide the allies, and the war was continued.

The unreaſonable haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg, (as ſome term it) and the then expected change of the miniſtry in England, ſaved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince

convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ſlaviſh doctrines of paſſive obedience, and non-reſiſtance. It was agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's cauſe. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial the queen's affections was entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough and the whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greateſt imprudence, and excited the aſtoniſhment of all Europe. So numerous had been his ſucceſſes, and ſo great his reputation, that his very name was almoſt equivalent to an army. But the honour and intereſt of the nation was ſacrificed to court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Maſham, a relation of the ducheſs of Marlborough, who had ſupplanted her benefactreſs, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew ſenſible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader need not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; but, after all, the peace would have been ſtill more indefenſible and ſhameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the dilatorineſs, if not bad faith of the allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Mr. Harley, who was created earl of Oxford, and lord high treaſurer of England, was then conſidered as the queen's firſt miniſter; but the negociations for the peace went alſo through the hands of Mr. Prior and lord Bolingbroke, one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate. The miniſtry endeavoured to ſtifle the complaints of the whigs and the remonſtances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accuſed of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical ſituation. The whigs condemned the peace as injurious to the honour and intereſt of the nation. The majority of the houſe of lords was of that party, but the houſe of commons favoured the court. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and by an unprecedented exerciſe of her prerogative, ſhe created twelve peers at one time, which ſecured the approbation of her meaſures. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her miniſters. The whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England, and ſhe was obliged haſtily to diſmiſs her lord-treaſurer; when ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off the firſt of Au-

guſt, 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign *. I have nothing to add to what I have already ſaid of her character, but that though ſhe was a favourite with neither party in her parliament till towards the end of her reign, when the tories affected to idolize her, yet her people dignified her with the name of the good queen Anne. Notwithſtanding all I have ſaid of the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; ſo firm was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of parliament.

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry an important reſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indeciſive a ſtate, that, upon her death, the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, ſon of the princeſs Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England. Many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily ſuppreſſed the beginning of the next year. Some deluded noblemen and gentlemen in the north of England joined a party of the Scotch rebels, but they were ſurrounded at Preſton, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were ſent priſoners to London, where ſome of them ſuffered. The tories and jacobites, however, raiſed mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England; but they were ſoon ſuppreſſed, by making their ring-leaders examples of juſtice. Lord Oxford was impriſoned for three years; but the capital proſecution of him by the whigs, for the hand he had in the peace of Utrecht, was ſecretly diſſapproved of by the king, and dropped.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was ſitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years, which is thought to have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamentary power ever known. Several other extraordinary meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the Tower for ſaying that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadverſion. The truth is, the whig miniſtry were exceſſively jealous of every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſter's title; and George I. though a ſagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too ſubſervient to his continental connections, which were various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muſcovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden been killed ſo criti-

* And with her ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the acceſſion of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretender, ſon of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's deceaſe, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St. Germains, and for ſome time treated as ſuch by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He reſided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romiſh faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two ſons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death, repaired to Rome, where he continued for ſome time, and afterwards reſided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately. Henry, his ſecond ſon, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York. March 28th, 1772, Charles, married Louiſa Maximillienne, born Sept. 21ſt, 175 , daughter of a prince of the family of Stolberg Grudern, in the circle of Upper Saxony, and grand-daughter, by the mother, of Thomas Bruce, late earl of Ayleſbury.

cally as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northen conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpoſe, he being incenſed at George as elector of Hanover, for purchaſing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718, George quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed by Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States-general; and his admiral, ſir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet near Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily; the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national puniſhment, different from plague, peſtilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the South-ſea ſtock, one of the trading companies. The plan of this company had been formed in 1711, for the purpoſe of carrying on an excluſive trade, and making ſettlements in South America. In 1720, the company obtained an act to increaſe their capital ſtock, by redeeming the public debts; and was then inveſted with the aſſiento of negroes, which had been ſtipulated between Great Britain and Spain. Men's hopes were ſo ſanguine, that the ſtock roſe to 310l. for a 100l. before the bill had the royal aſſent in April; before the end of May to 500; and by the twentieth of June, their ſtock roſe to 890 per cent. and afterwards to 1000; but, before the end of September, it fell to 150, by which thouſands were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconſiderable avarice of the ſubſcribers, yet the public imagined that the miniſtry had contributed to the calamity; ſome of the directors inſinuated as if the miniſters and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the addreſs to eſcape without cenſure, but the parliament paſſed a bill which confiſcated the eſtates of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance; a poor reparation for the public injuries.

The Jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent at the South-Sea ſcheme and England's connections with the continent, which every day increaſed. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were apprehended on ſuſpicion, but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee and ſeat in parliament, and baniſhed for life. There was ſome irregularity in the proceedings againſt him, and therefore the juſtice of the biſhop's ſentence has been queſtioned, though there is little reaſon to doubt of his guilt. After the ferment of this plot had ſubſided, the miniſtry, who were all in the intereſt of Hanover, ventured upon ſeveral bold meaſures, in ſome of which the national intereſt, if not honour, was evidently ſacrificed to that electorate. The crown of Great Britain was engaged in every continental diſpute, however remote from her intereſt; and a difference ſtill ſubſiſting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna, it was agreed that it ſhould be determined by a congreſs to be held at Cambray, under the auſpices of France. This congreſs proved abortive, and England was involved in freſh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that in September, 1725, a freſh treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, to hinder the Ruſſians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies, to watch the Spaniſh plate fleet. This laſt was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe. The king, in his ſpeech to the parliament, pub-

licly accuſed the emperor of a deſign to place the Pretender upon the throne of Great Britain; but this was ſtrenuouſly denied by baron Palme, the imperial ambaſſador at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

A quarrel with the emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed by ſir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament grew more laviſh in granting money and enormous ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eighth year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for an incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects, by which it was reckoned that almoſt a million and a half was won and loſt; and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which the Engliſh took in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the ſinking fund, for diminiſhing the national debt, is likewiſe owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures began to ſhift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their eſtates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died, and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown, that ſir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe, could another perſon have been found equally capable, as he was to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt at the next general election. Having compromiſed all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embaſſies and negociations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the ſubſidies paid to the German princes for the ſecurity of Hanover, and had even the addreſs to obtain, from time to time, votes of credit for fulfilling his immediate engagements; and in the mean while, to amuſe the public, he permitted enquiries into the ſtate of the jails, and other matters that did not affect his own power.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, and paſſing the *Gin Act*, in the year 1736, increaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in parliament; and taking advantage of the increaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they attacked the miniſter with great ſtrength of argument, and with great eloquence. In juſtice to Walpole, it ſhould be obſerved, that he filled the courts of

of juſtice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perverſion of the known laws of the kingdom. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous abuſe that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England never was more open or free than during his adminiſtration. And as to his pacific ſyſtem, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to ſupport it, by the increaſe of her trade and the improvement of her manufactures.

With regard to the king's own perſonal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his miniſter than his favourite; and his majeſty often hinted to him, as Walpole himſelf has been heard to acknowledge, that he was reſponſible for all meaſures of government. The debates concerning the Spaniſh depredations in the Weſt Indies, and the proofs that were brought to ſupport the complaints of the merchants, made at laſt an impreſſion even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the oppoſition, in both houſes of parliament, accuſed the miniſter of having by the treaty of Seville, and other negociations, introduced a branch of the houſe of Bourbon into Italy, and depreſſed the houſe of Auſtria, the ancient and natural ally of England. They expoſed, with invincible force of eloquence and reaſoning, the injuſtice and diſgrace, as well as loſs ariſing from the Spaniſh depredations, and the neceſſity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert ſtill adhered to his pacific ſyſtem, and concluded a ſhameful and indefenſible compromiſe under the title of a convention with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Queen Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter; but ſhe died November 20th, 1737, when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the proviſion to which his birth entitled him; and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that it was generally foreſeen that Walpole's power was drawing to a cloſe. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent, in 1739, with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt-Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto-Bello; but being a hot, impracticable man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which ſome thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs, and afterwards imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by with-holding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the miniſter, and after a few trying diviſions, he retired from the houſe, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and the 11th reſigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loſs of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and poſts of diſtinction, upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to all the Auſtrian dominions) through the ambition of France, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able, but a headſtrong miniſter, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743, and his not ſuffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tender-

tenderneſs for his electoral dominions. This partiality created an univerſal flame in England; and a clamour raiſed againſt his lordſhip's meaſures was increaſed by the duke of Newcaſtle and his brother, lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other miniſters, who reſigned, or offered to reſign their places, if lord Carteret ſhould retain his influence in the cabinet. His majeſty was obliged to give way to what he thought the voice of his people, and he indulged them with accepting the ſervices of ſome gentlemen who never had been conſidered as zealous friends to the houſe of Hanover. After various removals, Mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the treaſury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and conſequently was conſidered as firſt miniſter; or rather the power of the premierſhip was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcaſtle.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt the French and Spaniards, and her enemies ſought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that prevailed in England on account of the king's predilection for Hanover. This naturally ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who reſided at Rome; and he agreed that his ſon Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped, with a few followers, in a frigate to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands of Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to rebellion. It is neceſſary, before we relate the true cauſe of this enterprize, to make a ſhort retroſpect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops; and it was thought that above 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742, had been ſpent in negociations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to Great Britain; ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Leſtock had ſuffered the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after, the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war, carried on a moſt lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act againſt the French, till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition, and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they intended not to act in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege, but by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, and the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men; though it is generally allowed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England, with an immenſe treaſure (about a million ſterling) which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortreſs of Louiſbourg, in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt 1745, when the Pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurpriſed and diſarmed a party of the kings

king's troops in the weſtern Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never ſo thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the ſupport of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party, (for ſuch there was at that time in England) had laid a ſcheme for diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger aboliſhed all diſtinctions, and united them in the defence of one intereſt, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their addreſs to the king, to ſupport it, by receiving bank-notes in payment. This ſeaſonable meaſure ſaved the public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty, and the ſpirit of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch could never be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been explained. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and his army from total deſtruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh fleet, under the command of the admirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have been wiſhed, under rear-admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the ſucceſſes of the French and Engliſh, during the war, may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſtries turned their thoughts to peace. The queſtion is not yet decided which party had greateſt reaſon to deſire it, the French and Spaniards for the immenſe loſſes they had ſuſtained by ſea, or the allies for the diſgraces they had ſuffered by land.

The preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April 1748, a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix la-Chapelle in October, the baſis of which was the reſtitution on both ſides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the Engliſh in this war, from its commencement to the ſigning the preliminaries was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French: they loſt during the ſame time, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. Several of the ſhips taken from the Spaniards were immenſely rich; ſo that the balance, upon the whole, amounted to almoſt two millions in favour of England. Such is the groſs calculation on both ſides; but the conſequences plainly proved that the loſſes of the French and Spaniards muſt have been much greater. The vaſt fortunes made by private perſons in England all of a ſudden, ſufficiently ſhewed that immenſe ſums had not been brought to the public account; but the greateſt proof was, the next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing ever attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after an ineffectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have it replaced on the ſame ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums out of the ſinking fund. This was an æra of improvements: Mr. Pelham's candour and rectitude of adminiſtration leaving him few or no enemies in parliament, he omitted no opportunity of carrying into execution every ſcheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fiſheries; the benefits of which were felt during the ſucceeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent perſon, however, conſidered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than an armed ceſſation of hoſtilities. The French employed themſelves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had formed the deſign of ſeizing the Britiſh back ſettlements in America,

rica, and for cutting off all communication between the Engliſh and the native Indians; in which caſe our colonies muſt have been reduced to a narrow ſlip on the coaſts, without the means of getting ſubſiſtence but from the mother country. Fortunately for Great Britain, they diſcloſed their intention, by entering upon hoſtilities before they had power to ſupport them.

In the mean while, a new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000l. the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died univerſally lamented, his royal highneſs Frederic prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtyle was aboliſhed, and the new ſtyle eſtabliſhed. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the firſt of January. In 1753 the famous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the ſubject, is a point that is ſtill very queſtionable. The people of England about this time ſuſtained an immenſe loſs by the death of Mr. Pelham, who was one of the honeſteſt, wiſeſt, and beſt miniſters England had ever ſeen.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back ſettlements in America, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſending over vaſt bodies of veteran troops to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced a wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered with eleven ſhips of the line to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he took two French men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the ſtraights of Belleiſle. No ſooner was it known that hoſtilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 500 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8,000 of their beſt ſailors were brought into the kingdom. This vigorous meaſure was followed by farther ſucceſs, for about two years after, near 30,000 French ſeamen were found to be priſoners in England.

In July, 1755, general Braddock, who had been ſent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near Fort du Queſne; but major-general Johnſon defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

The Engliſh navy in 1755 conſiſted of one ſhip of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 66, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four ſloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; beſides a great number of bomb-ketches, fire-ſhips, and tenders; a force ſufficient to oppoſe the maritime ſtrength of all the powers of Europe. Whilſt that of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ſhips then upon the ſtocks, amounted to no more than ſix ſhips of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, ſix of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by thoſe invincible armaments, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been ſent out with a ſquadron at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galiſſionere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by general

general Blakeney. The Engliſh were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at thoſe events. The loſs of Minorca was more ſhameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot to death at Portſmouth for not doing all that was in his power againſt the enemy.

It was about this time that Mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of the adminiſtration. He had been long known as a bold, eloquent, and energetic ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be a ſpirited miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, under colonel Clive, were extraordinary. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French intereſt, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the great extent of riches and territory which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf; and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort, under general ſir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It ſailed on the 8th of September, 1757; but admiral Hawke brought back the ſea and land forces on the 6th of October to St. Helen's, the general having made no attempt to land on the coaſt of France. He was tried and acquitted without public murmur, ſo great an opinion had the people of the miniſter; who, to do him juſtice, did not ſuffer a man or a ſhip belonging to the Engliſh army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a powerful army, the Engliſh parliament voted large ſupplies of men and money to defend the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation, but was ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he found himſelf obliged to lay down his arms; and the French under the duke of Richlieu, took poſſeſſion of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity bordering on famine, raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion intended by the French, ſtill remained in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſia: in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to his Pruſſian majeſty; and alſo voted large ſums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe-Caſſel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards ſo burdenſome to England, was intended to unite the Proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George II. with the conſent of his Pruſſian majeſty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Cloſterſeven, ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a Pruſſian general, who inſtantly drove the French out of Hanover; and the duke of Marlborough, after the Engliſh had repeatedly inſulted the French coaſts, by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined Prince Ferdinand with 12,000

Britiſh troops, which were afterwards increaſed to 25,000. A war enſued, in the courſe of which the Engliſh gained great victories, which produced no deciſive effects. Even the battle of Minden, the moſt glorious perhaps in the Engliſh annals, in which about 7000 Engliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops, contributed nothing to the concluſion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The Engliſh bore the expences of the war with cheerfulneſs, and applauded the activity and ſpirit of Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, in Auguſt, 1758, reduced and demoliſhed Louiſbourg, in North America, which had been reſtored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the ſcourge of the Britiſh trade, and took five or ſix French ſhips of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Queſne, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into the hands of the Engliſh; acquiſitions that far over-balanced a check which the Engliſh received at Ticonderago, and the loſs of above 300 of the Engliſh guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coaſt of France.

The Engliſh affairs in the Eaſt Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pococke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien Amié, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that they run her on ſhore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occaſion, and the Engliſh only 29 killed, and 89 wounded. That on the third of Auguſt following, he engaged the French fleet a ſecond time near Pondicherry; when, after a briſk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the ſail they could make, and got ſafe into the road of Pondicherry. The loſs of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded; and that of the Engliſh only 147 killed and wounded. And that on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in thoſe parts, marched to beſiege Madras, which was defended by the Engliſh colonels Laurence and Draper; and after a briſk cannonade, which laſted till the 16th of February following, the Engliſh having received a reinforcment of 600 men, generally Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the iſland of Goree on the coaſt of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions were undertaken this year in America, and all of them proved ſucceſsful. One of them was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of French Canada. The command was given, by the miniſter's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed with far ſuperior force by Montcalm, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounted incredible difficulties; he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was killed himſelf, as was Montcalm; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved for brigadier-general (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general on command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Laurence. It is to the honour of the miniſter, Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſo well provided

with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that there ſcarcely appeared any chance for its miſcarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain: but, on the 18th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtraits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaur, of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeſte of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoubtable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night; and on November 20, ſir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the Theſée of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soliel Royal of 80, and the Heros, of 74 guns, were burnt, and afterwards the Juſte of 70 periſhed in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns over board; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line, and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns, which ran on ſhore in the chace. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their intended invaſion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had with three ſloops of war alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. Every day's gazette added to the accounts of the ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, and the utter ruin of the French finances, which that government did not bluſh publicly to avow. In ſhort, Great Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main, and ſucceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own ſafety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and many in England began to conſider it now as foreign to the internal intereſts of Great Britain. The French again and again ſhewed diſpoſitions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſtry to liſten to their propoſals. A negociation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760. George II. died ſuddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III. eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could ſeparate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was juſt rather than generous; and in matters of œconomy, either in his ſtate or his houſehold, he was willing to connive at abuſes, if they had the ſanction of law and cuſtom. He was not very acceſſible in converſation, and therefore it is no wonder that having left Germany after he had attained to man's eſtate, he ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with ſir Robert Walpole with great indifference, and ſhewed very little concern at the ſubſequent revolutions among his ſervants. This quality may be deemed a virtue, as it contributed greatly to the inter-

nal quiet of his reign, and prevented the people from loading the king with the faults of his miniſters. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, but placable, fearleſs of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he ſerved when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by party, the courts of juſtice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

King George III. (grandſon to his late majeſty, his father having died while he was only prince of Wales) aſcended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour: he was in the bloom of youth, in his perſon tall and comely, at the time of his acceſſion Great Britain was in the higheſt degree of reputation and proſperity, and the moſt ſalutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The firſt acts of his reign ſeemed alſo calculated to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſor ſhould not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry, in the Eaſt Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monkton, lord Rollo, and ſir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms with inconceivable rapidity.

As his majeſty could not eſpouſe a Roman catholic, he was precluded from intermarrying into any of the great families of Europe; he therefore choſe a wife from the houſe of Mecklenburg Strelitz, the head of a ſmall but ſovereign ſtate in the north-weſt of Germany; and the conduct of his excellent conſort has hitherto been ſuch as moſt highly to juſtify his choice. She was conveyed to England in great pomp, and the nuptials were celebrated on the very night of her arrival, viz. Sept. 8, 1761: and on the 22d of the ſame month, the ceremony of the coronation was performed with great magnificence in Weſtminſter-abbey.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war againſt France with ſuch eminent ability, and who had received the beſt information of the hoſtile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, propoſed in council an immediate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. He urged his reaſons for this meaſure with his uſual energy; aſſerting that "this was the time for humbling the whole houſe of Bourbon, that Spain was in daily expectation of a rich fleet from the Weſt Indies, that if we could intercept that, it would give a diſheartening blow to their power and pride, and that were this opportunity let ſlip, it might never be recovered." But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themſelves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was ſuppoſed that the earl of Bute, who had a conſiderable ſhare in directing the education of the king, had acquired an aſcendency in the royal favour*. Mr. Pitt, however, ſaid, that "as he was called to the miniſtry by the voice of the people, to whom he conſidered himſelf as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a ſituation which made him reſponſible for meaſures that he was not allowed to guide." He, therefore, reſigned the ſeals, and lord Temple alſo gave up the poſt which he held in the adminiſtration. But the next day, the king ſettled a penſion of three thouſand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the ſame time a title was conferred upon his lady and her iſſue; and the penſion was to be continued for three lives. Theſe advantages

* It was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate; and on the 5th of October following, Mr. Pitt reſigned the ſeals.

and

and honours had unqueſtionably been well deſerved by his public ſervices; but his acceptance of them greatly leſſened his popularity. A very conſiderable degree of diſcontent notwithſtanding prevailed in the nation, on account of his removal from power; and it was extremely natural, that the people ſhould behold, with the utmoſt regret, the removal of a miniſter, of whoſe abilities and integrity they had the higheſt opinion, and in the midſt of a war, which he had conducted with ſo much honour to himſelf and to his country. This great man had not reſigned the ſeals many weeks, when the Spaniſh fleet arrived ſafe in their ports, richly laden; an event which added the merit of truth and ſagacity to his laſt addreſs. After this, the court of Spain ſoon threw off the maſk, and gave the moſt unequivocal marks of their hoſtile intentions.

The war ſtill continued to be carried on with vigour after the reſignation of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were purſued that he had previouſly concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to ſucceed him, as ſecretary for the ſouthern department. It was at length alſo found indiſpenſably neceſſary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being now generally known; and accordingly war was declared againſt that kingdom, on the 4th of January 1762. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt Indies, after a ſiege of two months and eight days. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spaniards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards employed their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, the faithful but feeble ally of Great Britain. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not for me to decide. It certainly embarraſſed his Britannic majeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land.

The negociations for peace were now reſumed; and the enemy at laſt offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible. The defection of the Ruſſians from the confederacy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent ſucceſſes, produced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was ſolemnly proclaimed at Weſtminſter and London; and the treaty having on the eighteenth been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houſes.

By this treaty, the extenſive province of Canada, with the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmed to Great Britain; alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this ſide the Miſſiſſippi, (except the town of New Orleans, with a ſmall diſtrict round it,) was ſurrendered to us by France and Spain, in conſideration of reſtoring to Spain the iſland of Cuba; and to the French the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Deſirade; and in conſideration of our granting to the French the two ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretenſions to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the iſlands of

Grenada.

Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the ſettlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engroſſed the whole gum trade of that country; but we reſtored Goree, a ſmall iſland of little value. The article that relates to the Eaſt Indies, was dictated by the directors of the Engliſh company; which reſtores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they ſhall maintain neither fort nor forces in the province of Bengal. And the city of Manilla was reſtored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewiſe, the French reſtored to us the iſland of Minorca, and we reſtored to them the iſland of Belleiſle. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent in marches and countermarches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expence of 30 millions ſterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party ſit down at the end of the war, in the ſame ſituation in which they began it. And peace was reſtored between Portugal and Spain, both ſides to be upon the ſame footing as before the war.

The war, to which a period was now put, was the moſt brilliant in the Britiſh annals. No national prejudices nor party diſputes then exiſted. The ſame truly Britiſh ſpirit by which the miniſter was animated, fired the breaſt of the ſoldier and ſeaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages; and the monied man, pleaſed with the aſpect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the miniſter, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purſe. The incredible ſums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raiſed by a few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice, for the ſervice of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, was no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe, than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though it received the ſanction of a majority of both houſes of parliament, was far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the people. The manner in which it was begun, and the precipitation with which it was concluded, were condemned. The terms alſo were cenſured by many, as extremely inadequate to what might juſtly have been expected from the numerous victories and advantages which had been obtained againſt the enemy. And from this period various cauſes concurred to excite a ſpirit of diſcontent in the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's meſſengers entered the houſe of John Wilkes, eſq. member of parliament for Ayleſbury, and ſeized his perſon, by virtue of a general warrant from the ſecretary of ſtate, which directed them to ſeize 'the authors, printers, and publiſhers, of a ſeditious and treaſonable paper, intitled the North Briton, No. 45.' The papers publiſhed under this title, ſeverely arraigned the conduct of the adminiſtration, and repreſented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the perſon from whom meaſures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained ſtrictures on the king's ſpeech. Mr. Wilkes was ſuſpected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into cuſtody by ſuch a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However he was forcibly carried before the ſecretaries of ſtate for examination, and they committed him cloſe priſoner to the Tower, his moſt ſecret and confidential papers being alſo ſeized. He was likewiſe deprived of his commiſſion as colonel of the Buckinghamſhire militia. Not to mention the privilege of parliament which was flagrantly violated, the warrants were totally illegal, and directed as much againſt the whole Engliſh nation as againſt Mr. Wilkes and the other perſons taken into cuſtody. They were indeed conformable to precedent, but no precedent is ſufficient to juſtify what is in the nature of things wrong; or to ſubſtitute diſcretion in the place of law, which knows

knows no diſcretion, nor leaves the conſtruction to be put on warrants to thoſe low creatures, who muſt be entruſted with their execution. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought up to the court of Common Pleas, and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be diſcharged. This affair made a great noiſe; people of all ranks intereſted themſelves in it, and Weſtminſter-hall reſounded with acclamations when he was ſet at liberty. An information, however, was filed againſt him in the court of King's Bench, at his majeſty's ſuit, as author of the North Briton, No. 45. On the firſt day of the meeting of parliament, after theſe tranſactions, Mr. Wilkes ſtood up in his place, and made a ſpeech, in which he complained to the houſe, that in his perſon the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his impriſonment, the plundering of his houſe, and the ſeizure of his papers. The ſame day, a meſſage was ſent to acquaint the houſe of commons, with the information his majeſty had received, that John Wilkes, eſq. a member of that houſe, was the author of a moſt ſeditious and dangerous libel, and the meaſures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde-park between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Martin, another member of parliament, and ſecretary of the treaſury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a piſtol-bullet. Both houſes of parliament ſoon concurred in voting the North-Briton, No. 45, to be a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great oppoſition from the populace; and Mr. Harley, one of the ſheriffs who attended, was wounded, and obliged to take ſhelter in the Manſion-Houſe. Another proſecution was commenced againſt Mr. Wilkes, for having cauſed an obſcene and profane poem to be printed, intitled, "An Eſſay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed; and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he ſhould continue to be proſecuted with the utmoſt rigour, when his wound was in ſome degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was ſoon after expelled the houſe of commons; verdicts were alſo given againſt him, both on account of the North Briton and the Eſſay on Woman, and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sundry other perſons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publiſhing the North Briton; but ſome of them obtained verdicts againſt the king's meſſengers for falſe impriſonment.

In the mean while, the earl of Bute, who had been made firſt lord of the treaſury, reſigned that office, and was ſucceeded by Mr. George Grenville. And under this gentleman's adminiſtration, an act was paſſed, ſaid to have been framed by him, entitled, "An Act for laying a *ſtamp-duty* in the Britiſh Colonies of North-America," which received the royal aſſent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other regulations were previouſly made, under pretence of preventing ſmuggling in America; but which in effect ſo cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and to the mother-country. As ſoon as it was known in North America that the *ſtamp-act* was paſſed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own repreſentatives in their provincial aſſemblies, they loudly aſſerted, that the Britiſh parliament, in which they were not repreſented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the ſame doctrine had been maintained in the Britiſh parliament, when the ſtamp-act was under conſideration. On the other hand, it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reaſon and juſtice, to contribute towards the expence of the mother-country. 'Theſe children of our own planting,' ſaid Mr. George Grenville, ſpeaking of the Americans, 'nouriſhed by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of ſtrength and opulence, and protected by our arms,

arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expence which we lie under?'

When the ſtamp-act, as printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. It was publicly burnt in ſeveral places, together with the effigies of thoſe who were ſuppoſed to be the moſt active in bringing it about. The aſſembly of Virginia reſolved, 'That the general aſſembly of that colony, together with his majeſty or his ſubſtitute, have, in their repreſentative capacity, the only excluſive right and power to lay taxes and impoſitions upon the inhabitants of that colony; and that every attempt to inveſt ſuch a power in any perſon or perſons whatſoever, other than the general aſſembly aforeſaid, is illegal, unconſtitutional, and unjuſt, and has a manifeſt tendency to deſtroy Britiſh as well as American freedom.' Similar reſolves were alſo made in other colonies.

The general diſcontent which prevailed in America being known in England, ſeveral maſters of ſhips refuſed to take any ſtamps on board for the colonies; and it ſoon appeared, that their precaution was well founded; for ſuch as ventured to take them, had abundant reaſon to repent it, on their arrival at their deſtined ports; where, to ſave their veſſels from fire, they were forced to deliver their cargoes of ſtamped paper into the hands of the enraged multitude, to be treated in the ſame ignominious manner in which the act had been treated; and other veſſels were obliged to take ſhelter under ſuch of the king's ſhips as happened to be at hand to protect them. Many perſons who came from England, with commiſſions to act as diſtributors of the ſtamps, were alſo compelled publicly to renounce having any concern in them. Several other acts of violence were likewiſe committed, with a view of preventing the operations of the ſtamp-act, and aſſociations were alſo formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themſelves not to import or purchaſe any Britiſh manufactures, till that act ſhould be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies alſo eſtabliſhed committees to correſpond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from thoſe committees to meet IN CONGRESS at New-York. They aſſembled in that city, in October 1765, and this was the firſt congreſs held on the American continent.

Theſe commotions in America occaſioned ſo great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to diſmiſs his miniſters. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury; and ſome of his lordſhip's friends ſucceeded to the vacant places. In March 1766, an act was paſſed for repealing the American ſtamp-act. This was countenanced and ſupported by the new miniſtry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet ſpoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He ſaid of the late miniſtry, that 'every capital meaſure they had taken was entirely wrong.' He contended that the parliament of Great Britain had no right to tax the colonies. 'For the commons of America, repreſented in their ſeveral aſſemblies, have ever been in poſſeſſion of the exerciſe of their conſtitutional right, of giving and granting their own money. They would have been ſlaves if they had not enjoyed it. At the ſame time, this kingdom, as the ſupreme governing and legiſlative power, has always bound the colonies by her laws, by her regulations, and reſtrictions in trade, in navigation, in manufactures,—in every thing except that of taking their money out of their pockets without their conſent.'

At the time that the ſtamp-act was repealed, an act was alſo paſſed for ſecuring the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain. But this does not appear then to have given much umbrage to the coloniſts; and the repeal of the ſtamp-act occaſioned great rejoicings both in America and Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends continued in adminiſtration but a ſhort

ſhort time: though, during their continuance in power, ſeveral public meaſures were adopted, tending to relieve the burthens of the people, and to the ſecurity of their liberties. But on the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, ſecretary of ſtate, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townſhend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord-privy-ſeal; but that eminent ſtateſman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the houſe of commons, greatly leſſened his weight and influence. Indeed, this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and ſundry changes followed. Mr. Charles Townſhend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for ſome time a conſiderable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but, on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was ſupplied by lord North, who afterwards became firſt lord of the treaſury, and obtained a great aſcendancy in the adminiſtration, which began the American war without neceſſity, conducted it without ſpirit or prudence, and at laſt concluded it without honour or advantage, nay with infinite diſhonour and diſadvantage, as they cut off from the empire the immenſe continent of North America, which our colonies poſſeſſed, the brighteſt jewel in the crown.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a conſiderable time reſided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The parliament had juſt before been diſſolved; and on his arrival in London, though he ſtill lay under the ſentence of outlawry, he offered himſelf a candidate to repreſent that city in the enſuing parliament. He was received with loud acclamations, and the generality appeared greatly intereſted in his favour, but he loſt his election; only 1247 liverymen voted for him. His want of ſucceſs did not diſcourage him, for he immediately offered himſelf a candidate for the county of Middleſex. He was attended by an amazing number of people to Brentford, the place of election. The two other candidates had large fortunes, and great connections in the country; they had repreſented it for ſeveral years, and were ſupported by the whole intereſt of the court. Mr. Wilkes, however, being conſidered as a man who had been unjuſtly and unconſtitutionally perſecuted by the government, was elected by a great majority, on the 28th of March. The extreme joy of the populace at this event, occaſioned them to commit ſome irregularities in the city of London, on the evening of the day of election: and ſo great were the apprehenſions of the court upon this occaſion, that on the following day orders were given to the guards on duty at St. James's to be in readineſs at the beat of drum, to march to ſuppreſs any riot that might happen. In May following, Mr. Wilkes having voluntarily ſurrendered himſelf to the court of King's-bench, was committed to the King's-bench priſon. Soon after this, a number of perſons having aſſembled in St. George's fields, near that priſon, in hopes of ſeeing Mr. Wilkes, ſome diſorder enſued, and the ſoldiers were raſhly ordered to fire among the mob. Several perſons were killed, and in particular one William Allen, who was ſingled out, purſued by one of the ſoldiers, and ſhot near his father's houſe, in a manner which the occaſion could in no reſpect juſtify. This affair made a great noiſe; and the pains taken by the miniſter to ſupport and vindicate the military, increaſed the odium of the tranſaction. On the 8th of June Mr. Wilkes's outlawry was reverſed, and on the 18th of the ſame month ſentence was paſſed on him, that, for the republication of the North Briton, No. 45, he ſhould pay a fine of five hundred pounds, and be impriſoned ten months; and for publiſhing the Eſſay on Woman, that he ſhould pay the ſame fine, and be impriſoned twelve months, to be computed from the expiration of the term of the former impriſonment. He afterwards petitioned the houſe of commons, complaining of the injuſtice and illegality of the proceedings againſt him; but the houſe voted, that his complaints were frivolous

volous and groundleſs. He was alſo again expelled, for being the author of ſome prefatory remarks on a letter which he publiſhed, written by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate to the chairman of the quarter-ſeſſions at Lambeth, in which the ſecretary had recommended to the magiſtrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's Fields, calling in the aſſiſtance of the military, and employing them *effectually*, if there ſhould be occaſion. In the vote for his expulſion, his former offences, for which he was now ſuffering impriſonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be iſſued for the election of a member for the county of Middleſex.

The rigor with which Mr. Wilkes was proſecuted only increaſed his popularity. Before his expulſion he had been choſen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected at Brentford member for the county of Middleſex. The return having been made to the houſe, it was reſolved, that Mr. Wilkes, having been expelled that ſeſſion, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was declared void, and a new writ iſſued for another. He was once more unanimouſly re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the houſe of commons. After this a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrel, in order to recommend himſelf to the court, vacated the ſeat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himſelf a candidate for the county of Middleſex. Though the whole weight of court intereſt was thrown into the ſcale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared againſt him on the day of election; the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrel only 296. Notwithſtanding this, two days after the election, it was reſolved in the houſe of commons, that Mr. Luttrel ought to have been returned a knight of the ſhire for the county of Middleſex; and the deputy-clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by eraſing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inſerting that of colonel Luttrel. The latter accordingly took his ſeat in parliament: but this was thought ſo groſs a violation of the rights of the electors that it excited a very general diſcontent.

Petitions, couched in very ſtrong terms, were preſented to the throne from different places, complaining of this and other national grievances. The county of Middleſex, as the moſt immediately affected, took the lead on this occaſion, and preſented a petition, in which they complained, 'that their legal and free choice of a repreſentative had been repeatedly rejected, and the right of election finally taken from them, by the unprecedented ſeating of a candidate who was never choſen by the county.' They alſo ſaid, that 'inſtead of the ancient and legal civil police, the military were introduced at every opportunity, unneceſſarily and unlawfully; that the civil magiſtracy was rendered contemptible, by the appointment of improper and incapable perſons; and that the civil magiſtrates, being tampered with by adminiſtration, neglected and refuſed to diſcharge their duty.' Theſe petitioners likewiſe addreſſed his majeſty in the following terms: 'With great grief and ſorrow we have long beheld the endeavours of certain evil-minded perſons to infuſe into your royal mind notions and opinions of the moſt pernicious tendency, and who promote and counſel ſuch meaſures as cannot fail to deſtroy that harmony and confidence which ſhould ever ſubſiſt between a juſt and virtuous prince, and a free and loyal people.' Petitions of a ſimilar nature were preſented from the livery of London, the electors of Weſtminſter, from ſeveral other cities and boroughs, and about ſeventeen counties. Theſe petitions were ſaid to be ſigned by upwards of 60,000 electors. Some of them were principally confined to the violated right of election, but others were more diffuſe; and Yorkſhire, Weſtminſter, and ſome others, prayed, in expreſs terms, for a diſſolution of parliament, under the idea of its being venal and corrupt. Addreſſes were, however, procured from ſundry other places

places, of a very different tendency, and breathing nothing but loyalty and attachment to the government; notwithſtanding which it was extremely manifeſt that a great ſpirit of diſcontent prevailed throughout the nation.

In the courſe of this year a very important act was paſſed for regulating the conduct of the houſe of commons in controverted elections. Theſe uſed formerly to be determined by the houſe at large, and by a majority of votes, ſo that they were conſidered merely as party-matters, and the ſtrongeſt party, which was always that of the miniſtry, was ſure to carry the point, without paying the leaſt regard to the merits of the queſtion on either ſide. But by the bill, which was now paſſed, commonly called the Grenville-act, as it was drawn up and brought in by Mr. Grenville, they were ordered for the future to be decided by a committee of thirteen members, choſen by lot, and under the ſacred obligation of an oath; and ſince the enaction of this law, no well-grounded complaint has been made againſt the impartiality of their deciſions.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's impriſonment was expired, in the year 1771, he was choſen one of the ſheriffs for London and Middleſex; and the ſame year a remarkable conteſt happened between the city of London and the houſe of commons. Several printers had been ordered to attend that houſe, being charged with having inſerted in their news-papers accounts of the ſpeeches of members of parliament, contrary to a ſtanding order of the houſe. One of theſe printers, who had refuſed to attend the ſummons of the houſe, was apprehended by a meſſenger of the houſe of commons in his own houſe; whereupon he immediately ſent for a conſtable, and the meſſenger was carried before the lord-mayor at the manſion-houſe, where the aldermen Wilkes and Oliver alſo then were. The deputy ſerjeant at arms alſo attended, and demanded, in the name of the ſpeaker, that both the meſſenger and the printer ſhould be delivered up to him. This was refuſed by the lord-mayor, who aſked, for what crime, and upon what authority, the meſſenger had arreſted the printer? The meſſenger anſwered, he had done it by warrant from the ſpeaker. It was then aſked, if the warrant had been backed by a city magiſtrate? Which being anſwered in the negative, the warrant was demanded, and, after much altercation, produced; and its invalidity being argued by the printer's counſel, the three magiſtrates preſent diſcharged him from confinement. His complaint for an aſſault and falſe impriſonment being then heard, and the facts proved and admitted, the meſſenger was aſked for bail, which the ſerjeant having refuſed to give, a warrant for his commitment to priſon was made out, and ſigned by the lord-mayor and the two aldermen; but the ſerjeant then offered bail, which was accepted. The conſequence of this tranſaction was, that a few days after, the lord-mayor Croſby, and alderman Oliver, members of the houſe of commons, were committed priſoners to the Tower for their ſhare in this buſineſs, by the authority of the houſe; but they avoided, as much as poſſible, any new conteſt with Mr. Wilkes. That gentleman was choſen member for Middleſex in the ſubſequent parliament, and in the year 1783, after the change of lord North's adminiſtration, all the declarations, orders, and reſolutions, of the houſe of commons reſpecting his election for the county of Middleſex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that houſe, "as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body of electors of this kingdom." And it ſhould be remembered, that in conſequence of his manly and ſpirited conteſts with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to ſuch warrants, and to the unlawful ſeizure of an Engliſhman's papers by ſtate meſſengers.

Elective kingdoms are ſubject to ſuch violent ſhocks and convulſions upon every vacancy of the throne, that it has been thought proper in moſt of the modern ſtates of Europe, to eſtabliſh hereditary monarchies; and even in theſe laſt a diſputed title is always attended with ſuch civil wars and bloodſhed, that it has

been found expedient to keep the line of ſucceſſion as clear and diſtinct as poſſible. This is the reaſon why ſo much attention is given in this kingdom to the marriages of the royal family. The king's two brothers, the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland, having married privately, the former the counteſs dowager of Waldegrave, the latter a widow lady of the name of Horton, daughter to lord Irnham; a bill was now paſſed, in the year 1772, enacting, that all the deſcendants of his late majeſty (other than the iſſue of princeſſes, who have married, or may hereafter marry into foreign families) ſhall be incapable of contracting marriage without the conſent of the king, or his ſucceſſors on the throne, ſignified under the great ſeal, and declared in council; that every ſuch marriage, without ſuch conſent, ſhall be void; that, nevertheleſs, ſuch deſcendants being above the age of twenty-five years, upon their giving the privy-council twelve months notice of their deſign, may, after the expiration of that term, enter into marriage without the royal conſent, unleſs both houſes of parliament ſhall within that time expreſly declare their diſapprobation of it.

After the repeal of the ſtamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there: but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the Britiſh parliament, though beſides the experience of the ill ſucceſs of the ſtamp-act, governor Pownall, a gentleman well acquainted with the diſpoſition of the coloniſts, ſaid in the houſe of commons in 1767, "It is a fact which this houſe ought to be appriſed of in all its extent, that the people of America, univerſally, unitedly, and unalterably, are reſolved not to ſubmit to any internal tax impoſed upon them by any legiſlature, in which they have not a ſhare by repreſentatives of their own election." He added, "this claim muſt not be underſtood, as though it were only the pretences of party-leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the viſions of ſpeculative enthuſiaſts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which muſt ſubſide; as though it were only temporary, and partial—it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of buſineſs in the country." The event verified the juſtice of theſe obſervations; yet the ſame year an act was paſſed, laying certain duties on paper, glaſs, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies for the purpoſe of raiſing a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal theſe duties, except that on tea; but as it was not the *amount* of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great Britain to impoſe taxes in America, which was the ſubject of diſpute, the repealing the other duties anſwered no purpoſe, while that on tea remained, which accordingly became a freſh ſubject of conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies. Other laws had alſo been paſſed in England, particularly one relating to quartering troops in the colonies, and another for ſuſpending the legiſlative powers of the aſſembly of New York, which gave great umbrage in America. Another ſcheme which was alſo adopted, of appointing the governors and judges in the colonies to be paid by the crown, and not by the provincial aſſemblies, as heretofore, occaſioned likewiſe much diſcontent in America, as it was ſuppoſed that this new regulation would render the governors and judges wholly dependent on the crown.

In order to induce the Eaſt India company to become inſtrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was paſſed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty-free, to all places whatſoever. Several ſhips were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who alſo appointed agents there for the diſpoſal of that commodity. This was conſidered by the Americans as a ſcheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was eaſily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the cuſtody of the conſignees, no aſſociations nor other meaſures would be ſufficient to prevent its

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ſale and conſumption: and it was not to be ſuppoſed, that when taxation was eſtabliſhed in one inſtance, it would be reſtrained in others. Theſe ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was reſolved by the coloniſts to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongſt them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ſhips laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boſton in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the diſguiſe of Mohawk Indians, boarded theſe ſhips, and in a few hours diſcharged their whole cargoes into the ſea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some ſmaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a ſimilar fate at Boſton, and a few other places; but in general, the commiſſioners for the ſale of that commodity were obliged to relinquiſh their employments, and the maſters of the tea-veſſels, from an apprehenſion of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the perſons in the ſervice of government there were obliged to conſent to its being locked up from uſe. And in South Carolina ſome was thrown into the river, as at Boſton, and the reſt put into damp warehouſes, where it periſhed.

Theſe proceedings in America excited ſo much indignation in the government of England, that on the 31ſt of March, 1774, an act was paſſed for removing the cuſtom-houſe officers from the town of Boſton, and ſhutting up the port. Another act was ſoon after paſſed 'for better regulating the government in the province of Maſſachuſet's Bay.' The deſign of this act was to alter the conſtitution of that province as it ſtood upon the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to veſt the nomination of the counſellors, judges, and magiſtrates of all kinds, including ſheriffs, in the crown, and in ſome caſes in the king's governor, and all to be removeable at the pleaſure of the crown. Another act was alſo paſſed, which was conſidered as highly injurious and unconſtitutional, empowering the governor of Maſſachuſet's Bay to ſend perſons accuſed of crimes there to be tried in England for ſuch offences. Some time after an act was likewiſe paſſed 'for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec,' which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legiſlative council was to be eſtabliſhed for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation, which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleaſure; and his majeſty's Canadian Roman catholic ſubjects were entitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were alſo eſtabliſhed in civil caſes, and the Engliſh laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popiſh clergy were inveſted with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No aſſembly of the people, as in other Britiſh colonies, was appointed, it being ſaid in the act, that it was then inexpedient: but the king was to erect ſuch courts of criminal, civil, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, as he ſhould think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewiſe extended by the act thouſands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was ſaid, a government little better than deſpotic was eſtabliſhed throughout an extenſive country. As to the clauſes reſpecting the Popiſh clergy in Canada, it was admitted, that it would have been unjuſt to have perſecuted them, or to have deprived them of the exerciſe of their religion; but it was maintained, that it could not be neceſſary that popery ſhould have ſuch a legal eſtabliſhment given it by a Britiſh government, as that their prieſts ſhould have the ſame right to claim their eccleſiaſtical revenues, as the clergy of the eſtabliſhed church in England. It was alſo thought extremely injurious to the Britiſh ſettlers in Canada, that, when that province had been conquered by Britiſh arms, they ſhould be compelled to ſubmit to French laws, and be deprived of thoſe privileges which they would have enjoyed in other parts of his majeſty's dominions.

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The meaſures of government reſpecting America had ſo univerſally exaſperated the coloniſts, that provincial or town-meetings were held in every part of the continent, wherein they avowed their intentions of oppoſing, in the moſt vigorous manner, the meaſures of adminiſtration. One cauſe, one injury, and one ſentiment, rouſed and pervaded all. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the ſubſcribers bound themſelves in the moſt ſolemn manner, and in the preſence of God, to ſuſpend all commercial intercourſe with Great Britain, from the laſt day of the month of Auguſt, 1774, until the Boſton-port-bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Maſſachuſet's Bay fully reſtored to its chartered rights. Other tranſactions ſucceeded; and the flame continued to increaſe and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of country which reaches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congreſs, which was opened at Philadelphia, the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who repreſented the ſeveral Engliſh colonies of New Hampſhire (2), Maſſachuſet's Bay (4), Rhode Iſland and Providence Plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jerſey (4), Pennſylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and ſent deputies to the Congreſs. They entered into an aſſociation, in which they bound themſelves and their conſtituents, not to import into Britiſh America, from Great Britain or Ireland, any goods, wares, or merchandiſe whatſoever, from the firſt day of December following; nor to import any Eaſt India tea from any part of the world; nor to export any merchandiſe or commodity whatſoever to Great Britain, Ireland, or the Weſt Indies, from the 10th of September, 1775, unleſs the act for ſtopping the port and blocking up the harbour of Boſton, that for altering the charter and government of the province of Maſſachuſet's Bay, the Quebec act, the acts by which duties were impoſed on any commodities imported into America, and ſome other acts, which they enumerated, were repealed. They avowed their allegiance to his Majeſty, and their affection and regard for their fellow ſubjects in Great Britain, but aſſerted the neceſſity of their adopting ſuch meaſures as were calculated to obtain a redreſs of thoſe grievances which they laboured under; and which, they ſaid, "threatened deſtruction to the lives, liberty, and property of the inhabitants of the colonies."

They alſo drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their ſeveral grievances, and ſolicited his Majeſty to grant them peace, liberty, and ſafety. They likewiſe publiſhed an addreſs to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the provinces of Quebec. The congreſs broke up on the 26th of October, having reſolved, that another congreſs ſhould be held in the ſame place, on the 10th of May following, unleſs the grievances of which they complained ſhould be redreſſed before that time: and they recommended to all the colonies to chooſe deputies, as ſoon as poſſible, for that purpoſe.

Shortly after theſe events, ſome meaſures were propoſed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a ſtop to the commotions which unhappily ſubſiſted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm ſtate of health, appeared in the houſe of lords, and expreſſed in the ſtrongeſt terms his diſapprobation of the whole ſyſtem of American politics. He alſo made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boſton. He repreſented this as a matter which ſhould be inſtantly adopted; urging, that an hour then loſt, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alledged, that the preſent ſituation of the troops rendered them and the Americans continually liable to events, which would cut off the poſſibility of a reconciliation; but that this conciliatory

ciliatory meaſure would be well-timed; and as a mark of affection and good-will on our ſide, would remove all jealouſy and apprehenſion on the other, and inſtantaneouſly produce the happieſt effects to both. His lordſhip's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 againſt 18; as was alſo a bill which he brought in ſoon after for ſettling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods propoſed in the houſe of commons for promoting an accommodation, met alſo with a ſimilar fate. The number of his majeſty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was paſſed for reſtraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the houſe of commons, by lord North, firſt lord of the treaſury, for ſuſpending the exerciſe of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the Britiſh parliament, in ſuch of the colonies as ſhould, in their general aſſemblies, raiſe ſuch contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to ſome of the provincial aſſemblies: but it was rejected by them as deluſive and unſatisfactory, and only calculated to diſunite them. The petition from the congreſs to the king was ordered by his majeſty to be laid before the parliament: whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, ſolicited to be heard at the bar of the houſe of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in ſupport of that petition: but their application was rejected; it being ſaid, that the American congreſs was no legal aſſembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

In the mean time, the inhabitants of the American colonies began to prepare for war; they trained and exerciſed their militia with great induſtry; and when advice was received of a proclamation which was iſſued in England, to prevent the exportation of arms and ammunition to America, meaſures were immediately adopted to remedy the defect. And to render themſelves as independent as poſſible of foreigners, for the ſupply of thoſe articles, mills were erected, and manufactories formed, both in Philadelphia and Virginia, for the making of gun-powder; and encouragement was given in all the colonies, for the fabrication of arms of every kind.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the firſt blood was drawn, in this unhappy civil war. The Americans having collected ſome military ſtores at the town of Concord in New-England, general Gage, governor of the colony, ſent the grenadiers and light infantry of the army to deſtroy them. The detachment, conſiſting of about 900 men, embarked in boats at Boſton, and having landed at a place called Phipps's farm, proceeded with expedition towards Concord. When they arrived at Lexington, they found a company of militia, of about 100 men, muſtered near a meeting-houſe. It was juſt before ſun-riſe when the Britiſh troops came in ſight of them; whereupon an officer in the van called out, "Diſperſe, you rebels, throw down your arms, and diſperſe," the ſoldiers at the ſame time running up with loud huzzas. Some ſcattering ſhots were firſt fired, and immediately ſucceeded by a general diſcharge, by which eight of the American militia were killed, and ſeveral wounded: it was ſaid by ſome of the regulars, that the provincials firſt fired, the contrary was teſtified upon oath by a number of the Americans. After this the detachment advanced to Concord, and proceeded to execute their commiſſion, by rendering three pieces of cannon unſerviceable, burning ſome new gun carriages, a number of carriage wheels, and throwing into the river a conſiderable quantity of flour, gunpowder, muſket-balls, and other articles. In the mean time a ſmall body of the militia returned towards the bridge which they had lately paſſed; and upon this movement, the light infantry retired on the Concord ſide of the river, and began to pull up the bridge; but, upon the near approach of the militia, the ſoldiers immediately fired, and killed two men. The Americans returned the fire, and a ſkirmiſh enſued at the bridge, in which the

Engliſh troops were forced to retreat, having ſeveral men killed and wounded, and a lieutenant and ſome others taken. About this time the country people began to riſe more generally againſt the king's troops, and to attack them on all quarters; ſkirmiſh ſucceeded upon ſkirmiſh; and a continued, though irregular fire, was ſupported through the whole of a long and hot day. In the march back to Lexington, a diſtance of ſix miles, the troops were extremely annoyed, and it is probable, that their whole body would have been cut off, had not general Gage ſent lord Percy in the morning to ſupport them with ſixteen companies of foot, and a body of marines, with two pieces of cannon. This powerful reinforcement obliged the provincials for ſome time to keep their diſtance: but as ſoon as the king's troops reſumed their march, the attacks, as the country people became more numerous, grew in proportion more violent, and the danger was continually augmenting, until they arrived, about ſun-ſet, at Charles-Town, from whence they paſſed over directly to Boſton, extremely haraſſed and fatigued. The loſs of the king's troops amounted to 65 killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 priſoners. The Americans were computed not to have loſt more than 60, including killed and wounded.

Soon after this action, numerous bodies of the American militia inveſted the town of Boſton, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmoſt diſpatch; and a ſtop was almoſt every where put to the exportation of proviſions. The continental congreſs met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May 1775, as propoſed, and ſoon adopted ſuch meaſures as confirmed the people in their reſolutions to oppoſe the Britiſh government to the utmoſt. Among their firſt acts, were reſolutions for the raiſing of an army, and the eſtabliſhment of a large paper currency for its payment. They aſſumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were ſecurities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They alſo ſtrictly prohibited the ſupplying of the Britiſh fiſheries with any kind of proviſions, and to render this order the more effectual, ſtopt all exportation to thoſe colonies, iſlands, and places, which ſtill retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, ſurpriſed the garriſons of Ticonderago and Crown Point. Theſe fortreſſes were taken without the loſs of a man on either ſide: and the provincials found in the forts a conſiderable number of pieces of cannon, beſides mortars, and ſundry kinds of military ſtores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boſton from England, of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with conſiderable reinforcements. But the continental congreſs were ſo little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Maſſachuſet's Bay was diſſolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the eſtabliſhment of a new government, by electing a governor, aſſiſtants, and houſe of aſſembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

The town of Boſton had now been for ſome time blocked up by the provincials: but the poſt of Charles-Town, which is ſeparated from Boſton only by a river, had hitherto been neglected by both parties. The Americans at laſt thought this poſt neceſſary for them, whether they ſhould chuſe to act on the offenſive or defenſive. They accordingly made preparations, and ſent a body of men at night to throw up works upon Bunker's hill, a high ground that lies juſt within the iſthmus, or neck of land that joins the peninſula to the continent. The party carried on their works with ſuch order and ſilence, that though the peninſula was ſurrounded with ſhips of war, they were not heard during the night, and uſed ſuch incredible diſpatch in the execution, that they had a ſmall but ſtrong redoubt, conſiderable entrenchments, and a breaſt-work, which was in ſome parts cannon-proof, far advanced towards

completion, by the break of day. The fight of the works was the firſt notice that alarmed the Lively man of war early in the morning; and her guns called the town, camp, and fleet, to behold a fight which ſeemed little leſs than a prodigy. Upon this diſcovery, a heavy and continual fire of cannon, howitzers, and mortars, was carried on upon the works of the provincials, from the ſhips, from floating batteries, and from the top of Cop's Hill in Boſton: but the Americans bore this ſevere fire with great firmneſs, and appeared to purſue their buſineſs as if no enemy had been near. About noon general Gage cauſed a conſiderable body of troops to be embarked under the command of major-general Howe, and brigadier-general Pigot, to drive the provincials from their works. This detachment, together with a reinforcement which it afterwards received, amounted in the whole to more than 2000 men. The attack was begun by a moſt ſevere fire of cannon and howitzers, under which the troops advanced very ſlowly towards the enemy, and halted ſeveral times, to afford an opportunity to the artillery to ruin the works, and to put the Americans into confuſion. The Americans, on their part, ſuſtained a ſevere and continual fire of ſmall arms and artillery with remarkable firmneſs and reſolution. They did not return a ſhot, until the king's forces had approached almoſt to the works, when a moſt dreadful fire took place, by which numbers of the Britiſh troops fell, and many of their officers. They were thereupon thrown into diſorder; but being rallied, and again brought to the charge, they attacked the works of the Americans with fixed bayonets, and forced them in every quarter. Many of the provincials were deſtitute of bayonets, and their ammunition is ſaid to have been expended; however, a number of them fought deſperately within the works, from which they were not driven without great difficulty, and they at length retreated ſlowly over Charles Town Neck. Charles Town itſelf, during the action, was ſet on fire in ſeveral places, and burnt to the ground. This was the firſt ſettlement made in the colony, and was conſidered as the mother of Boſton, that town owing its birth and nurture to emigrants from the former: it contained about 400 houſes, and had a great trade. The loſs of the king's troops in the action at Bunker's Hill amounted to 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers.

After this action the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, oppoſite to it, on their ſide of Charles Town Neck; ſo that the troops were as cloſely inveſted in that peninſula as they had been in Boſton. About this time the congreſs appointed George Waſhington, eſq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired conſiderable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the laſt war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They alſo publiſhed a declaration, in which they ſtyled themſelves "the Repreſentatives of the United Colonies of North America," and aſſigned their reaſons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated ſtrain, and contained the following paſſage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth-right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired ſolely by the honeſt induſtry of our forefathers and ourſelves; againſt violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We ſhall lay them down when hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on the part of the aggreſſors, and all danger of their being renewed ſhall be removed, and not before." A ſecond petition to the king was alſo voted by the congreſs, in which they earneſtly ſolicited his majeſty to adopt ſome method of putting a ſtop to the unhappy conteſt between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was preſented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennſylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, ſecretary of ſtate for the American department; but Mr. Penn was ſoon after informed, that no anſwer would be given to it. The refuſal of the king to give an anſwer to this petition, from near three millions of people by their repreſentatives, contributed exceedingly

towards farther exaſperating the minds of the Americans. An addreſs was now publiſhed by the congreſs to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory meaſures were adopted, hoſtilities ſtill continued; and an expedition was ſet on foot by the Americans againſt Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commiſſion given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the ſubjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital puniſhments againſt all thoſe whom he ſhould deem rebels and oppoſers of the laws. The American expedition againſt Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, an Iriſhman, on whom the congreſs conferred the rank of brigadier-general. He firſt made himſelf maſter of Chamblée, a ſmall fort, in which he found 120 barrels of gunpowder, and other military ſtores. He afterwards took the fort of St. John's, in which was a garriſon of about 500 regulars, together with ſome Canadian volunteers; and the town of Montreal alſo ſurrendered to him on the 13th of November, 1775. In the mean time colonel Benedict Arnold undertook to march with a body of Americans from Boſton to Quebec, by a rout which had hitherto been untried, and conſidered as impracticable. They had thick woods, deep ſwamps, difficult mountains and precipices alternately to encounter; and were at times obliged to cut their way for miles together through the thickets. After overcoming innumerable difficulties, they arrived in Canada, where Arnold publiſhed an addreſs to the people of that province, ſigned by general Waſhington, in which they were invited to join with the other colonies in an indiſſoluble union, and to range themſelves under the ſtandard of general liberty. A ſimilar publication had before been iſſued by Montgomery. Arnold appeared before Quebec on the 9th of November, and ſoon after joined Montgomery, on whom the chief command of courſe devolved. General Carleton, the governor, employed every effort to repel the aſſailants. On the 31ſt of December Montgomery attemped to gain poſſeſſion of the place by ſtorm, but was killed in the firſt fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was alſo dangerouſly wounded, about 60 of their men were likewiſe killed and wounded, and 300 taken priſoners. The beſiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the ſiege was for ſome months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving conſiderable reinforcements and ſupplies of proviſions from England, May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; Montreal, Chamblée, and St. John's were re-taken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During theſe tranſactions the royal army at Boſton was reduced to great diſtreſs for want of proviſions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of ſeven thouſand men, was obliged to quit Boſton, and embark for Halifax, leaving a conſiderable quantity of artillery and ſome ſtores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Waſhington immediately took poſſeſſion of it. On the 4th of July following, the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "Free and independent States;" that they were abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally diſſolved; and alſo that, as free and independent ſtates, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent ſtates may

of

of right do. They likewiſe publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "the United States of America," and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendſhip for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themſelves to aſſiſt each other againſt all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled againſt all, or any one of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatſoever. Each of the colonies reſerved to themſelves alone the excluſive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation.

Several attempts were made in the Britiſh parliament by the duke of Richmond, Mr. Burke, Mr. Hartley, Mr. Wilkes, and others, to promote conciliatory meaſures: but no ſchemes for that purpoſe obtained the countenance of the government. Nogociations were ſet on foot for taking large bodies of foreign troops into the pay of Great Britain, and the war continued to be carried on againſt the Americans with great ardour. In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore ſir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-town in South Carolina. But this place was ſo ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the Britiſh commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ſhips having ſuſtained conſiderable loſs, and a twenty-eight gun ſhip, which run a-ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and ſeamen. However, a much more important and ſucceſsful attack againſt the Americans was ſoon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Heſſians, and a conſiderable number of Highlanders, ſo that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and admiral were inveſted with a power, under the title of "Commiſſioners for granting Peace to the Colonies," of granting pardons to thoſe who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New-York ſeems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the beſt manner they were able. On Long Iſland, near New York, the Americans had alſo a large body of troops encamped, and ſeveral works thrown up. General Howe firſt landed on Staten Iſland, where he met with no oppoſition; but early in the morning of the 22d of Auguſt, a deſcent was made by the Britiſh troops upon Long Iſland, and towards noon about fifteen thouſand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans, by their ſuperior ſkill and diſcipline, and being better provided with artillery and every kind of military accommodation; and the American paſſes were far from being properly ſecured. Some ſkirmiſhes happened during ſeveral ſucceſſive days; in which the Britiſh troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans ſuffered exceedingly. Finding themſelves ſo much overpowered, they at length reſolved to quit the iſland, and general Waſhington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he diſplayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp and their different works, and with their baggage, ſtores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-ſide, embarked, and paſſed over a long ferry to New York, with ſuch extraordinary ſilence and order, that the Britiſh army did not perceive the leaſt motion, and were ſurpriſed in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and ſeing the laſt of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been ſo ſurrounded by the Britiſh troops, and the latter had diſplayed ſuch ſuperior military ſkill, it was a ſubject of wonder that the greateſt part of the American army ſhould be able to effectuate their retreat. In the different actions

previous to their retreat, the loſs of the Americans had been very conſiderable. Upwards of a thouſand of them were taken priſoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers; their number of killed and wounded was computed to be ſtill greater; they loſt alſo five field-pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in the different redoubts and forts on the iſland; whilſt the whole loſs of the Britiſh troops did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

But this great ſucceſs of the royal army was far from bringing the Americans to ſubmiſſion. When ſome overtures, tending towards a reconciliation, were a few days after made by lord Howe, he was anſwered by a committee from the congreſs, "that the colonies now conſidered themſelves as independent ſtates, and were ſettling, or had ſettled, their government accordingly; and that, therefore, a return to the domination of Great Britain was not now to be expected; but they were willing to enter into any treaty with Great Britain which might be beneficial to both countries." Soon after this, the Americans abandoned the city of New York to the king's troops, who took poſſeſſion of it with little oppoſition, and found therein a large quantity of ordnance and military ſtores. Some of the provincials afterwards found means to ſet fire to the city in ſeveral places, and a third part of it was burnt down.

After the ſurrender of New York, the royal army obtained other conſiderable advantages over the Americans: as at the White Plains, taking Fort-Waſhington, with a garriſon of 2500 men, and Fort Lee with a great quantity of ſtores, which loſſes obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerſies to the river Delaware, a diſtance of ninety miles. Alſo on the 8th of December, general Clinton, and ſir Peter Parker obtained poſſeſſion of Rhode-iſland; and the Britiſh troops covered the Jerſies. This was the criſis of American danger. Their forts were taken, the time of military ſervice of the greateſt part was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a deſtitute ſtate, with a well clothed and diſciplined army purſuing. Had general Howe haſtened at that time to Philadelphia, after Waſhington, it hath been maintained, there would have been an end of the conteſt. His delay gave time for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradeſman, and labourer, to join general Waſhington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidſt ſnow, ſtorms, and ice, with a ſmall detachment, croſſed the Delaware, and ſurpriſed a brigade of the Heſſian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them priſoners, with whom he repaſſed the river; having alſo taken three ſtandards, ſix pieces of braſs cannon, and near one thouſand ſtand of arms. Immediately after this ſurpriſe of the Heſſians, and depoſiting them in ſafety, Waſhington recroſſed the river to reſume his former poſt at Trenton. The Britiſh troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning; but the Americans defeated his plan. Waſhington, to diſguiſe his retreat, in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp. Then moving from the ground with his baggage and artillery, he, by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Prince-town early in the morning, carried the Britiſh poſt at that place, and ſet off with near 300 priſoners on his return to the Delaware, juſt as the Britiſh troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, ſuppoſing him in his former poſition. By theſe two events, accompliſhed with but a ſmall force, the Americans deranged all the meaſures of the Britiſh general; made him draw in his troops to a cloſer compaſs, to protect his magazines at Brunſwick; and by the efforts of their general, they cloſed the campaign with advantage, which but a few days before had threatened the country with deſtruction. The Americans had alſo fitted out a great number of privateers, which took many prizes; and, on the other hand, not a few of the American veſſels fell into the hands of the Engliſh, but they were generally of little value.

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In the month of September 1777, two actions of ſome importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Waſhington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and ſoon after, the city of Philadelphia ſurrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for ſome time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by the way of Canada, proved extremely unſucceſsful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne. He ſet out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and a fine train of artillery, and was joined by a conſiderable body of the Indians. For ſome time he drove the Americans before him, and made himſelf maſter of Ticonderago; but at length he encountered ſuch difficulties, and was ſo vigouroufly oppoſed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two ſevere actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms October 17, 1777: they were, however, permitted to march out of their camp with all the honours of war, and were to be allowed to return to Europe, upon condition of their not ſerving again during the preſent war. In one of the actions previous to this convention, brigadier-general Frazer, a very gallant officer, was killed; and at the time of their ſurrender, the Britiſh army was exceedingly reduced in numbers; and their ſtock of proviſions was not more than ſufficient for three days ſubſiſtence: whilſt on the other hand, the American army had been joined by numerous bodies of the militia, who were exaſperated at ſome late cruelties committed by the Indians in the ſervice of Great Britain.

About the ſame time, ſir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a ſucceſsful expedition againſt the Americans up the North River; but the Americans complained that the Britiſh troops had wantonly ſet fire to houſes and towns, particularly Eſopus, and carried on the war in a manner not uſual among civilized nations. Theſe devaſtations greatly increaſed their averſion to the Britiſh governent, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe ſoon after returned to England, and the command of the Britiſh army in America devolved upon general Clinton: but it was now found neceſſary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton reteated with the army to New York, in June, 1778. The Britiſh troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was ſo ably conducted, or the American general Lee behaved ſo ill, that their loſs did not amount to 300, killed and wounded.

This war with the colonies, the French court ſeems to have thought a favourable opportunity for leſſening the power of Great Britain. They ſupplied the Americans with arms and ammunition; ſome French officers alſo entered into the American ſervice; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and of this treaty it was declared, that the eſſential and direct end was "to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty, and independence, abſolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be alarmed; and in June, 1778, the earl of Carliſle, William Eden, and George Johnſtone, eſqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commiſſioners from his majeſty, to ſettle the diſputes between the mother-country and the colonies. They were inveſted with certain powers for this purpoſe by act of parliament. But it was now too late: the terms, which, at an earlier period of the conteſt, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with diſdain. The congreſs refuſed to enter into any treaty with the Britiſh commiſſioners, unleſs the independency of the United States of America was previouſly acknowledged, or the Britiſh fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of theſe requiſitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animoſity. At the cloſe of the year, Georgia was invaded

vaded by the king's troops, the town of Savannah taken, and the whole province at length reduced.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted coloniſts, occaſioned the commencement of hoſtilities between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either ſide. On the 17th of June, 1778, the Licorne and La Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately iſſued by the French court for making repriſals on the ſhips of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July a battle was fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line, and the French of 32, beſides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Breſt. Of the Engliſh 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loſs of the French is ſuppoſed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the Engliſh fleet, becauſe a deciſive victory had not been obtained over the French; at laſt the blame was thrown upon ſir Hugh Palliſer, vice-admiral of the blue, who was charged in a newſpaper with miſconduct and diſobedience of orders. Though no regular accuſation was brought againſt him, he required of admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated againſt him. This the admiral declined, which gave riſe to ſome altercation between them; and ſir Hugh Palliſer afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the board of admiralty (of which he himſelf was a member) articles of accuſation againſt admiral Keppel, though, for many months after the action, he had continued to act under him. A mode of conduct ſo extraordinary was very generally and ſeverely cenſured; but the lords of the admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. Soon after a memorial was preſented to the king by the duke of Bolton, ſigned by twelve admirals, among whom was lord Hawke, remonſtrating againſt the injuſtice of holding a court-martial on admiral Keppel, upon the accuſation of an inferior officer, "after forty years of meritorious ſervice, and a variety of actions in "which he had exerted eminent courage and conduct, by which the honour and "power of this nation, and the glory of the Britiſh flag, had been maintained and "increaſed in various parts of the world." When the court-martial was held, admiral Keppel was acquitted in the moſt honourable manner; and ſir Hugh Palliſer's charge againſt him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-"founded." Sir Hugh Palliſer being afterwards tried by another court-martial, partly compoſed from ſome of the captains of his own diviſion, he likewiſe was acquitted; and his diſobedience to the admiral's orders was aſcribed to the diſabled ſtate of his ſhip.

In the Eaſt Indies an engagement happened between ſome Engliſh ſhips of war under the command of ſir Edward Vernon, and ſome French ſhips under the command of Monſ. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of Auguſt, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the courſe of the ſame year the iſland of St. Lucia, in the Weſt Indies, was taken from the French; who in return made themſelves maſters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained poſſeſſion of St. Vincent's and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Eſtaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a conſiderable body of French troops, to the aſſiſtance of the Americans. After dallying a month, the French and Americans made an united attack upon the Britiſh troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevoſt. But the latter defended themſelves ſo well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loſs, and D'Eſtaing ſoon

ſoon after totally abandoned the coaſt of America. And at the cloſe of the year 1779, ſeveral French ſhips of war and merchant-ſhips were taken in the Weſt Indies, by a fleet under the command of ſir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage in the war againſt England, and to aſſemble forces to beſiege Gibraltar, which was defended by the garriſon with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was alſo added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets ſeemed for a time to ride triumphant in the Britiſh Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconſiderable apprehenſions of an invaſion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind, and after parading for ſome time in the Channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports. On the 8th of January, 1780, ſir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured ſeven Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels of war belonging to the royal company of Carraccas, with a number of trading veſſels under their convoy; and in a few days after the ſame admiral engaged near Cape St. Vincent a Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of eleven ſhips of the line and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largeſt Spaniſh ſhips were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on ſhore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the Engliſh. A Spaniſh 70 gun ſhip, with 600 men, was alſo blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewiſe happened in the Weſt Indies, between the Engliſh fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world, (having previouſly thrown ſupplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but no ſhip was taken on either ſide. In July following admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ſhips from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of Auguſt, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips, bound for the Weſt Indies, which was one of the moſt complete naval captures ever made, and a very ſevere ſtroke to the commerce of Great Britain.

On the 4th of May, 1780, ſir Henry Clinton made himſelf maſter of Charlestown, South Carolina; and on the 16th of Auguſt earl Cornwallis obtained a very ſignal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thouſand American priſoners were taken, beſides ſeven pieces of braſs cannon, a number of colours, and their ammunition-waggons. But on the 10th of July, Monſ. Ternay, with a fleet conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, beſides frigates, and a large body of French troops, commanded by the count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Iſland, and landed 6000 men there. The American inhabitants congratulated the French general upon his arrival, and he aſſured them, that the king, his maſter, had ſent him to the aſſiſtance of his good and faithful allies, the United States of America; and that the French troops were to act under the orders of general Waſhington, and would live with the Americans as their brethren.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deſerted the ſervice of the congreſs, made his eſcape to New York, and was appointed a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice. His behaviour in the government of Philadelphia had incurred the diſpleaſure of the Americans. He was reprimanded by a court-martial, but afterwards taken into ſervice in the principal army, with conſiderable rank and truſt. His affections however were totally eſtranged from the American cauſe. Accordingly when the ſtrong and important poſt of Weſt Point, with its dependencies, and a wing or conſiderable diviſion of the army were entruſted to him, a negociation was diſcovered between him and general Clinton for the purpoſe of delivering up the poſt which he commanded. This would have enabled Clinton to ſurpriſe the other poſts and batteries, and final ruin to the Americans muſt have been the reſult. Major Andrè, adjutant-general of the Britiſh army, was employed in this clandeſtine negociation. After an interview with Arnold, and ſtaying in his tent

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a whole night and day; on his return to New York he was taken, diſguiſed, within the American lines, and in his boot were found, in Arnold's hand-writing, exact returns of the ſtate of the forces, ordnance, and defences at Weſt Point and its dependencies, the artillery orders, critical remarks on the works, eſtimates of the number of men on duty to man them, and a copy of very intereſting matters which had been laid before a council of war by the commander in chief. Theſe papers that were found upon him ſubjected him to inſtant execution, in the ſummary way uſually practiſed with ſpies; but general Waſhington appointed a board of fourteen general officers to examine into his caſe, who reported, that he ought to be conſidered as a ſpy, and as ſuch to ſuffer death, which was inflicted on him at Tappan, in the province of New York.

The great expences of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occaſioned much diſcontent, and ſeemed to convince perſons of all ranks of the neceſſity of public œconomy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom, at the cloſe of the year 1779 and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were preſent, who agreed to preſent petitions to the houſe of commons, in which they earneſtly requeſted, "that before any new burthens were laid upon this country, "effectual meaſures might be taken by the houſe to inquire into and correct the "groſs abuſes in the expenditure of public money; to reduce all exorbitant emo-"luments; to reſcind and aboliſh all ſinecure places and unmerited penſions; and "to appropriate the produce to the neceſſities of the ſtate, in ſuch manner as to "the wiſdom of parliament ſhould ſeem meet." The firſt petition of this kind was agreed to in the county of York; and the example was followed by the counties of Cheſter, Hertford, Suſſex, Surry, Eſſex, Somerſet, Wilts, Glouceſter, Huntingdon, Dorſet, Cumberland, Norfolk, Devon, Berks, Nottingham, Bucks, Cambridge, Bedford, Suffolk, Northumberland, Hereford, and Denbigh. The cities of London and Weſtminſter, and ſeveral other towns and corporations, concurred in ſimilar petitions. In ſome counties committees were alſo appointed to carry on the neceſſary correſpondence with other counties, for effectually promoting the objects of the petition. Great expectations were at firſt formed of the effects which theſe would produce, and they were vigorouſly ſupported by the minority in parliament, where ſome attempts were made to remedy the grievances ſtated, but nothing important was effected; the miniſtry ſoon found means to regain their influence; a diverſity of ſentiment occaſioned diſunion among the popular leaders; and various cauſes conſpired to bring the greateſt part of the nation to a patient acquieſcence in the meaſures of adminiſtration.

The middle of the year 1780 was diſtinguiſhed by one of the moſt diſgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; eſpecially if it be conſidered as happening in an age, in which the principles of toleration were well underſtood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately paſſed "for relieving his majeſty's ſubjects profeſſing the Romiſh religion, from certain "penalties and diſabilities impoſed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the "reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of ſenſe, and of liberal ſentiments, by whom the laws againſt Papiſts were juſtly deemed too ſevere. The act at firſt ſeemed to give little offence to perſons of any claſs in England, but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Reſolutions were formed to oppoſe any law for granting indulgences to Papiſts in Scotland; and a Romiſh chapel was burned, and the houſes of ſeveral Papiſts demoliſhed, in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England; a number of perſons aſſembled themſelves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the Papiſts, and they aſſumed the title of the Proteſtant Aſſociation.

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They were chiefly Methodiſts, and bigoted Calviniſts, in the lower ranks of life; many of them well-intentioned perſons, and having a juſt diſlike to popery; but not ſufficiently enlightened to conſider, that a ſpirit of perſecution was one of the worſt characteriſtics of that ſyſtem of ſuperſtition, and that this was at leaſt as odious in Proteſtants as in Papiſts. They continued to hold frequent meetings; lord George Gordon, a young man, diſcontented at not being promoted from a lieutenant to a captain in the navy, became their preſident, and they increaſed in numbers. At a time when the nation was ſurrounded with real dangers, the heads of theſe weak men were filled with nothing but the fear of popery; and they even ſeemed to fancy that they were contending for religious liberty, when they were labouring to excite the legiſlature to prevent ſome of their fellow-ſubjects from worſhipping God according to the dictates of their conſciences. The Proteſtant aſſociation at length agreed to a petition, which was ſaid to have been ſubſcribed by more than one hundred thouſand perſons. It was then reſolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it ſhould be attended by great numbers of the petitioners in perſon; and a public advertiſement was iſſued for that purpoſe, ſigned by lord George Gordon. Fifty thouſand perſons are ſuppoſed to have aſſembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the houſe of commons, where their petition was preſented by their preſident. In the courſe of the day ſeveral members of both houſes of parliament were groſsly inſulted and ill-treated by the populace; and a mob aſſembled the ſame evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romiſh chapel in Warwick-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, were entirely demoliſhed. A party of the guards was then ſent for, to put a ſtop to the farther progreſs of theſe violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards commited to Newgate, eſcorted by the military. On the Sunday following another mob aſſembled, and deſtroyed a Popiſh chapel in Ropemaker's-Alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demoliſhed a ſchool-houſe, and three dwelling-houſes, in the ſame place, belonging to the Romiſh prieſts, with a valuable library of books, and a maſs-houſe in Virginia-ſtreet. They alſo deſtroyed all the houſhold furniture of ſir George Savile, one of the moſt reſpectable men in the kingdom, becauſe he had brought in the bill in favour of the Papiſts. On Tueſday great numbers again aſſembled about the parliament-houſe, and behaved ſo tumultuouſly, that both houſes thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a moſt daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to releaſe the rioters who were confined there: and the keeper having refuſed to deliver them, his houſe was ſet on fire, the priſon was ſoon in flames, and great part of it conſumed, though a new ſtone edifice of uncommon ſtrength; and more than three hundred priſoners made their eſcape, many of whom joined the mob. The Proteſtant aſſociation, as they thought proper to ſtyle themſelves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of miſchief, and the hope of plunder. Two other priſons, the houſes of lord Mansfield, and ſir John Fielding, and ſeveral other private houſes, were deſtroyed the ſame evening. The following day, the King's Bench priſon, the New Bridewell, in St. George's Fields, ſome Popiſh chapels, ſeveral private houſes of Papiſts, and other buildings, were deſtroyed by the rioters; ſome were pulled down, and others ſet on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and diſorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During theſe extraordinary ſcenes, there was a ſhameful inactivity in the lord-mayor of London, and in moſt of the other magiſtrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the miniſtry appeared to be panic-ſtruck, and to be only attentive to the preſervation of their own houſes, and of the royal palace. The magiſtrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the mili-

tary to fire upon the inſurgents; but at length, as all property began to be inſecure, men of all claſſes began to ſee the neceſſity of a vigorous oppoſition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was iſſued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magiſtrates, and to uſe force for diſperſing the illegal and tumultuous aſſemblies of the people." The troops exerted themſelves with diligence in the ſuppreſſion of theſe alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony *, and the metropolis was at length reſtored to order and tranquillity. It is pretended, that no member of the Proteſtant aſſociation was executed, or tried, for any ſhare in theſe riots. What truth there may be in that aſſertion, we cannot determine; the fact can only be aſcertained, by comparing the names of the perſons tried or convicted, with the numerous names on the petition, to which few perſons have had acceſs; and there can be no doubt, but that many who were engaged in the riots, were neither convicted nor tried. At all events, it was manifeſtly the bigotry of a few leaders of this pretended Proteſtant aſſociation, to which theſe riots owed their origin. The manner in which theſe tumults were ſuppreſſed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magiſtrate, however neceſſary from the peculiar circumſtances of the caſe, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent; and that an act of indemnity ought to have been paſſed, not only with regard to inferior perſons who had acted in the ſuppreſſion of theſe riots, but alſo with reſpect to the miniſtry themſelves, for the part they had taken in this tranſaction.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was diſturbed by theſe commotions, there appeared reaſon to apprehend an increaſe of its foreign enemies. The American war had occaſioned various diſputes between Great Britain and Holland. Complaints were made by the Dutch, that their ſhips were ſeized by the Engliſh cruizers, without juſt cauſe. On the other hand, loud remonſtrances were made by the Britiſh miniſter to the States-general, complaining that a clandeſtine commerce was carried on between their ſubjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the caſe at St. Euſtatia; and that the enemies of Great Britain were ſupplied with naval and military ſtores by the Dutch. Theſe diſputes continued to increaſe; and on the firſt of January, 1780, commodore Fielding brought to Spithead ſeveral ſhips laden with naval ſtores, which were under the convoy of a Dutch admiral. The States-general alleged, that the naval ſtores which had been ſeized were not contraband goods, according to the expreſs tenor of the treaties between Great Britain and Holland, and that the conduct of the Engliſh commodore, which was approved by his ſovereign, was a direct inſult upon the Dutch flag, and a violation of the treaties ſubſiſting between the two nations. Previous to this tranſaction, the Britiſh miniſter had demanded of the States-general the ſuccours which were ſtipulated in the treaty of 1678, and others: and which were now claimed on account of the dangers with which Great Britain was threatened, and particularly the invaſion with which ſhe was menaced by her enemies. Repeated applications were made to the States-general on this ſubject, but they delayed giving any anſwer. On the 17th of April, a declaration was publiſhed by his Britannic majeſty, by which it was announced, that repeated memorials having been preſented by his majeſty's ambaſſador to the States-general, demanding the ſuccours ſtipulated by treaty; to which requiſitions they had given no anſwer, and thereby deſerted the alliance that had ſo long ſubſiſted between Great Britain

* Lord George Gordon was himſelf committed to the Tower, and tried for high-treaſon, but acquitted.

and

and the republic, and placed themſelves in the condition of a neutral power; his majeſty would conſider them henceforth as ſtanding only in that diſtant relation. He therefore declared, that the ſubjects of the United Provinces were henceforward to be conſidered upon the ſame footing with other neutral ſtates, not privileged by treaty; and he ſuſpended proviſionally, and till farther orders, all the particular ſtipulations reſpecting the ſubjects of the States-general, contained in the ſeveral treaties ſubſiſting between Great Britain and the republic.

An incident happened, which ſhewed how well founded this declaration was. On the third of September, the Mercury, a congreſs packet, was taken by the Veſtal, captain Keppel, near Newfoundland. On board this packet was Mr. Laurens, late preſident of the congreſs, who was bound on an embaſſy to Holland. Among his papers was found the ſketch of a treaty of amity and commerce between the republic of Holland and the United States of America. Indeed it did not appear that the States-general were at all conſulted upon the tranſaction, ſo that it was more properly a proviſional treaty with the ſtates of Amſterdam, or of the province of Holland, than with the United Provinces at large. This treaty appeared to be approved by Mr. Van Berkel, counſellor and penſionary of the city of Amſterdam. In conſequence of this diſcovery, his Britannic majeſty demanded a formal diſavowal of the whole tranſaction, and the exemplary puniſhment of the penſionary Van Berkel, and his accomplices, as diſturbers of the public peace, and violators of the rights of nations. The States-general not giving an immediate anſwer to this requiſition, freſh applications were made on this ſubject by the Britiſh miniſter; who received for anſwer, that his memorial had been taken *ad referendum* by the deputies of the reſpective provinces, according to their received cuſtom and conſtitution of government; and that they would endeavour to frame an anſwer to his memorial, as ſoon as the conſtitution of their government would permit. This gave ſo little ſatisfaction to the Britiſh court, that their ambaſſador was ordered to withdraw from the Hague; and a declaration of hoſtilities againſt Holland was publiſhed on the 20th of December, 1780. This meaſure ſeemed, at firſt, to be generally applauded by the Britiſh nation; but there were many who thought it a very raſh and impolitic ſtep, and that a war with Holland ought not to have been ſo much precipitated, at a time when Great Britain was already involved in hoſtilities with ſo many enemies.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour; and that republic ſoon ſuffered a very ſevere ſtroke in the loſs of the iſland of St. Euſtatia, which was taken by the Engliſh on the 3d of February, 1781. When admiral Rodney, and general Vaughan, who arrived there with a large fleet, and a conſiderable body of troops, ſummoned the place to ſurrender, the inhabitants were in ſuch conſternation, and in no expectation of an attack, that no reſiſtance was made. The private property, goods, merchandiſe, and ſpecie of the inhabitants, were ſeized, as well as the public military and naval ſtores. The capture of ſhipping was alſo very great; upwards of 200 veſſels being taken, beſides a 60 gun ſhip, and a frigate of 38 guns. The iſlands of St. Martin and Saba likewiſe ſurrendered, but the ſeizure of the private property, at St. Euſtatia, was thought a very rigorous and ſhameful meaſure; altogether unprecedented among civilized nations, and diſgraceful to the Britiſh name. The inhabitants of the iſland of St. Chriſtopher remonſtrated againſt it as a dangerous precedent; it was obſerved, that the French nation had acted in a much more humane manner in their late captures; and the Britiſh Weſt India planters petitioned the king on the occaſion, repreſenting to him, they had always conceived it to be a maxim among nations, and eſtabliſhed in humanity and ſound policy, that war ſhould be carried on with the leaſt poſſible injury to private property.

On the 5th of Auguſt, the ſame year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron, under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. According to the Engliſh accounts, the Dutch ſquadron conſiſted of eight ſhips of the line, and the Engliſh only of ſeven; but the Dutch repreſent their force to be inferior to that of the Engliſh. On both ſides they fought with great gallantry, and by both of the contending ſquadrons the victory was claimed. All the ſhips were greatly ſhattered, and a Dutch 74 gun ſhip ſunk after the action. The Engliſh had 104 men killed, and 339 wounded; and the loſs of the Dutch is ſuppoſed to have been much greater.

The war continued to be proſecuted with various ſucceſs; the French made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans commanded by general Green, at Guilford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781, but it was a hard-fought battle, and the loſs on both ſides conſiderable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the conſequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his ſick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before they could find ſhelter, and ſo left South Carolina entirely expoſed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed ſome ravages in Virginia, deſtroyed much ſhipping, and about 8000 hogſheads of tobacco; but none of theſe events at that time promiſed any ſpeedy termination of the war; they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans and the French at Rhode Iſland to that quarter, where the next year the deciſive blow was ſtruck, which firmly eſtabliſhed American independence. Lord Cornwallis's ſituation at Wilmington was very diſagreeable, and his force reduced ſo low that he could not think of marching to Charles-Town by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the ſcattered operations of the war began at length to converge into a point. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, amuſed by ſome intercepted letters of general Waſhington's, was prevented from ſending thoſe ſuccours to lord Cornwallis which he otherwiſe would have done, by his fears for New York, againſt which he apprehended Waſhington meditated a formidable attack.

But that general, having kept New York and its dependencies in a continued ſtate of alarm for about ſix weeks, ſuddenly marched acroſs the Jerſeys and through Pennſylvania to the head of the Elk, at the bottom of the Cheſapeak, from which the light troops were conveyed by ſhipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were alſo there embarked, and ſoon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count de Graſſe was expected every moment in the Cheſapeak, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Waſhington, now ſeriouſly attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without ſucceſs, for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the Britiſh fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under De Graſſe, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French maſters of the navigation of the Cheſapeak. Preſently the moſt effectual meaſures were adopted by general Waſhington for ſurrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the laſt of September it was cloſely inveſted in York-town, and at Glouceſter on the oppoſite ſide of the river, with a conſiderable body of troops on one ſide, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 6th and 7th of October, with a conſiderable train of artillery. The works which had been raiſed by the Britiſh, ſunk under the weight of the enemies batteries; the troops were much diminiſhed

by the ſword and ſickneſs, and worn down by conſtant watching and fatigue, and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis ſurrendered himſelf and his own army on capitulation*. Fifteen hundred ſeamen underwent the fate of the garriſon, but theſe, with the Guadaloupe frigate of 24 guns, and a number of tranſports, were aſſigned to M. de Graſſe, in return for his naval aſſiſtance.

The ſurrender of this ſecond Britiſh army may be conſidered as the cloſing ſcene of the continental war in America; for the immenſe expence of carrying it on ſo diſtant from the ſeat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effuſion of blood it had occaſioned; the diminution of trade and the vaſt increaſe of taxes—Theſe were evils of ſuch a magnitude, as could ſcarcely be overlooked even by the moſt inſenſible and ſtupid. Accordingly on the 1ſt of March, 1782, after repeated ſtruggles in the houſe of commons, the houſe addreſſed the king, requeſting him to put a ſtop to any farther proſecution of the war with America. This event rendered a change of meaſures and of councils abſolutely neceſſary, and diffuſed univerſal joy throughout the kingdom. Thoſe country gentlemen who had generally voted with the miniſtry, ſaw the dangers to which the nation was expoſed in an expenſive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a ſingle ally, and feeling the preſſure of the public burdens, they at length deſerted the ſtandard of adminiſtration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27, 1782, under the auſpices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury.

Peace was the firſt object of attention with the new miniſtry. Mr. Grenville was inveſted with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was alſo directed to propoſe the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the firſt inſtance, inſtead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were alſo directed to acquaint the Congreſs with the pacific views of the Britiſh court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

The new miniſters alſo applied themſelves to make ſome retrenchment in the public expences, and to reform ſome of the various abuſes they had inveighed againſt when out of office. A bill was carried for excluding cuſtom-houſe and exciſe officers from voting at the elections for members of the houſe of commons.—Another for excluding all contractors from being members; and by another bill, which alſo received the royal aſſent, the board of trade, the board of works, the great wardrobe, and the different offices of third ſecretary of ſtate, treaſurer of the chamber, cofferer of the houſhold, the lords of the police in Scotland, the paymaſter of the penſions, maſter of the harriers, maſter of the ſtag-hounds, and clerks to the board of green-cloth, were aboliſhed, which, with other ſavings ſpecified in the bill, were computed to amount to 72,368l. per annum. On the 3d of May, it was alſo ordered by the houſe of commons, as, before mentioned, that, "All the declarations, orders, and reſolutions of that houſe reſpecting the election of John Wilkes, eſq. to be elected a member to ſerve in the ſaid parliament, ſhould be expunged from the journals of that houſe, as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body of electors of the kingdom."

A ſeries of loſſes had agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the ſame month, the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. The valuable iſland of Jamaica would ſoon probably have ſhared the ſame fate, had not the Britiſh fleet under admiral

* The American return made the number of priſoners 7,247, land and marine.

Rodney

Rodney fallen in with that of the French under the Count de Graffe in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to ſupport the centre, and a ſignal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a preſent from the city of Paris to the French king) was taken, with two ſeventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ſhip blew up by accident ſoon after ſhe was in our poſſeſſion, and another 74 ſunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated. The new miniſtry had ſuperſeded Admiral Rodney, and intended to have proſecuted the inquiry into his tranſaction at Euſtatia; but this victory ſilenced all, and procured him the dignity of an Engliſh peer.

May 8th, the Bahama iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards, while the credit of the Britiſh arms was gloriouſly ſuſtained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot. The formidable attack on the 13th September with floating batteries of 212 braſs cannon, &c. in ſhips from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in diſappointment, and the deſtruction of all the ſhips and moſt of the aſſailants. The garriſon was at length relieved by lord Howe in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though 12 ſail of the line inferior. The military operations after this, were few and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, and Trincomale on the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French ſoon receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the Britiſh fleet in ſeveral actions, but none deciſive, and enabled Hyder Ally to reſiſt the efforts of ſir Eyre Coote and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham on the 1ſt of July occaſioned much commotion in the cabinet, and leſſened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new adminiſtration. Lord Shelburne ſucceeded the marquis as firſt lord of the treaſury, and it is ſaid, without the knowledge of his colleagues. This gave great offence to ſome, particularly to Mr. Fox, and lord John Cavendiſh; who, with others, reſigned their places, and commenced a fierce oppoſition in the houſe of commons. Mr. Fox declared, "that the principles on which the miniſtry firſt came in, were abandoned by lord Shelburne and his adherents; that the *old ſyſtem* was to be revived, moſt probably, with the *old men*, or indeed with any men that could be found. They were perſons whom neither promiſes could bind, nor principles of honour ſecure: they would abandon fifty principles for the ſake of power, and they would now ſtrive to ſtrengthen themſelves by any means which corruption could procure; and he expected to ſee, in a very ſhort time, they would be joined by thoſe very men whom that houſe had precipitated from their ſeats." The duke of Richmond, general Conway, and others, maintained, that there was no deviation in the preſent cabinet from the principles on which they had entered into office, and continued to act with lord Shelburne, till under his auſpices, the preliminaries for a general peace were ſettled. Then, the public beheld Mr. Fox, and even lord John Cavendiſh, coaleſcing with the old miniſters, lord North particularly; embracing the very men whom they had driven from their ſeats, and threatened with impeachments; and continuing to join with them in reprobating the peace as making too great conceſſions to the enemy, that they might ſtorm the cabinet, drive lord Shelburne and his friends from it, and ſeat themſelves and the men they had deſpiſed, in their places.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France *, Great Britain reſtored to France the iſland of Tobago, in the Weſt Indies, and the river Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few diſtricts

* Preliminary articles ſettled January 20, 1783.

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in the East Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karichal; it reſtored alſo the iſlands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the iſland of Goree, with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the factory of Surat. To prevent diſputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fiſhery, it was agreed, that the French line for fiſhing ſhould begin from Cape St. John on the eaſtern ſide, and going round by the North, ſhould have for its boundary Cape Ray on the weſtern ſide; and Great Britain renounced every claim reſpecting the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to reſtore to Great Britain the iſlands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montſerrat; and guarantied Fort James in the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade ſhould remain in the ſame condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each ſtate in the East Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification, but if they were averſe to peace, no aſſiſtance on either ſide was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and ceded Weſt Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all cauſes of complaint and miſunderſtanding in future, it was agreed that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the diſtrict lying between the rivers Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the courſe of the ſaid rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to reſtore the iſlands of Providence, and the Bahamas, to Great Britain, but they had been retaken before the peace was ſigned.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledges New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſets Bay, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, ſovereign*, and *independent ſtates*, and for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhes all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every part thereof. To prevent diſputes in future on the ſubject of boundaries between theſe ſtates and the Britiſh provinces, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, as well as delineated on the map of the United States of America: and ſome favourable clauſes were obtained for the loyaliſts. The navigation of the Miſſiſſippi to remain open to both parties, as alſo the Newfoundland fiſheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties aroſe, but at length it was ſtipulated, that Great Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomale in the iſland of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it, and that the Dutch ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies, in the East Indies.

The terms of the peace were, to many, a ſubject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been neceſſary to borrow annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum*, would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions at leaſt to the capital of the public debt, according to the uſual modes of funding. The ceſſions made on the part of Great Britain cannot be eſteemed worth the expence of but one year's war, eſpecially conſidering the exhauſted ſtate of the country and its revenues, and of the national ſpirit, through the rage of parties and the luſt of ambition. But no ſooner were the preliminary treaties with France and Spain, and the proviſional articles with America, preſented to parliament, than they met with a violent oppoſition, and were reprobated as highly injurious to the dignity and intereſt of the nation. The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried however in the houſe of lords by a majority of 72 to 59, but loſt in the houſe of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, thus enliſted under the banner of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North, plainly indicated a miniſterial revolution, unleſs

unleſs the cabinet ſhould call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen juſt mentioned were made ſecretaries of ſtate, and the duke of Portland firſt lord of the Treaſury, on April 2, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preſerving the nation, which lord Shelburne propoſed, ſeemed now to be dropt. Mr. Pitt's motion for correcting the defects in the repreſentation of parliament, was loſt by a majority of 293 to 149; and Mr. Sawbridge's motion, that leave be given to bring in a bill for ſhortening the duration of parliaments, was rejected by 123 to 56. Mr. Pitt alſo propoſed a bill for reforming the boards of the Treaſury, Admiralty, Ordnance, Exciſe, Stamps, and other offices, which was oppoſed by Mr. Burke and other members of adminiſtration, who had moſt ſtrenuouſly contended for that meaſure before they themſelves had attained lucrative places. This bill was ſuffered to paſs the commons to amuſe the public, but was rejected by the lords, 40 to 24. Every thing went on juſt as the coalition adminiſtration pleaſed, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the Eaſt India company, and their commercial affairs and territories; a plan of which bill, its progreſs and fate, are already given in our account of that trading company*. This bill being rejected in the houſe of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occaſioned a great ferment in the cabinet and in both houſes of parliament. It was aſſerted in the lower houſe, that his majeſty had empowered lord T——e to report the following meſſage, that "*His majeſty* will not only conſider as not being *his friend*, every perſon who votes for the preſent India bill, but he will look upon thoſe who ſupport it, as *his enemies*; and if lord T—— e can find ſtronger words to convey his majeſty's wiſhes to that effect, he is at liberty to uſe them." After long debate, the commons reſolved by a conſiderable majority, "That it is now neceſſary to declare, that to report any opinion, or pretended opinion, of his majeſty, upon any bill, or other proceeding depending in either houſe of parliament, with a view to influence the votes of the members, is a high crime and miſdemeanour, derogatory to the honour of the crown, a breach of the fundamental privileges of parliament, and ſubverſive of the conſtitution of this country.

"Reſolved, that this houſe will, upon Monday morning next, reſolve itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe, to conſider of the ſtate of the nation.

"Reſolved, that it is neceſſary to the moſt eſſential intereſts of this kingdom, and peculiarly incumbent on this houſe, to purſue with unremitting attention the conſideration of a ſuitable remedy for the abuſes which have prevailed in the government of the Britiſh dominions in the Eaſt Indies, and that this houſe will conſider as an enemy to his country, any perſon who ſhall preſume to adviſe his majeſty to prevent, or in any manner to interrupt, the diſcharge of this important duty."

Theſe reſolutions, with ſome words which dropped from Mr. Fox, and lord North, the next day in the houſe of commons, in ſupport of a motion for adjournment to the next week, which was thought to be intended merely to protract the buſineſs of parliament, and prevent granting the ſupplies, occaſioned their diſmiſſion from miniſtry. A royal meſſage was ſent between 12 and 1 of the morning of the 19th of December, to deſire the two ſecretaries to reſign the ſeals of their office; and Mr. Pitt ſucceeded the duke of Portland as firſt lord of the Treaſury, bringing with him his friends into the reſpective departments, which formed the tenth adminiſtration ſince his majeſty's acceſſion.

A diſſolution of the houſe of commons being now feared by the coalition, they voted and carried an addreſs to the king, to repreſent the dangers which appeared to them likely to follow from a prorogation or diſſolution of the parliament in the

* Page 240.

preſent

preſent arduous and critical conjuncture of public affairs, and humbly to beſeech his majeſty to hearken to the advice of his faithful commons, and not to the *ſecret advices* of perſons who may have private intereſts of their own, ſeparate from the true intereſts of his majeſty and the people." The king aſſured them, he would not interrupt their meeting by any exerciſe of his prerogative, either of prorogation or diſſolution. Before the houſe adjourned over the holidays, it reſolved on the 24th of December, "that the lords of the treaſury ought not to conſent or authorize the Eaſt India directors to accept any more bills, or to a greater amount than 300,000l. unleſs they ſhall be able to prove to parliament, that they have ſufficient means to provide for the payment of them, after they ſhall have made their dividend and diſcharged the debt due to government, or unleſs they had the direction of that houſe." This was thought to convey an imputation, as if Mr. Pitt intended to make a bad uſe of the power veſted by law in the treaſury.

As ſoon as the houſe met, it was ſaid, that the two great rival parties who had coaleſced and forgotten their former differences and anathemas againſt each other, intended to monopolize all the power in the country. On the 12th of January, 1784, the coalition majority, in a committee on the ſtate of the nation, reſolved, "That it is the opinion of this committee, that for any perſon or perſons in his majeſty's treaſury, or in the exchequer, or in the bank of England; or for any perſons whatſoever, employed in the payment of public money; to pay, or direct to be paid any ſum or ſums of money, for or towards the ſupport of ſervices voted in the preſent ſeſſion of parliament, after the parliament ſhall have been prorogued or diſſolved, if it ſhall be prorogued or diſſolved, before any act of parliament ſhall have paſſed, appropriating the ſupplies to ſuch ſervices; will be a high crime and miſdemeanour, a daring breach of a public truſt, derogatory to the fundamental privileges of parliament, and ſubverſive of the conſtitution of this country. That it alſo is the opinion of this committee, in the preſent ſituation of his majeſty's dominions, it is peculiarly neceſſary that there ſhould be an adminiſtration which has the *confidence of this houſe* and the people. And an amendment being propoſed to inſert, after the word "confidence," the words "*of the crown*," it paſſed in the negative. They alſo reſolved, "That it is the opinion of this committee, that the late changes in his majeſty's councils were immediately preceded by dangerous and univerſal reports that his majeſty's ſacred name had been unconſtitutionally abuſed to affect the deliberations of parliament, and that the appointments made were accompanied by circumſtances new and extraordinary, and ſuch as do not conciliate or engage the confidence of this houſe." On the 16th of January, they carried the following reſolution: "That it is the opinion of this committee, it having been declared by this houſe, that in the preſent ſituation of his majeſty's dominions, an adminiſtration ſhould be formed, which poſſeſſed the confidence of this houſe, and the public; and the preſent adminiſtration being formed under circumſtances *new* and *extraordinary*, ſuch as were not calculated to conciliate the affections, or engage the confidence of the houſe; and his majeſty's *preſent miniſters* ſtill holding high and reſponſible offices, after ſuch a declaration, is *contrary to true conſtitutional principles*, and injurious to his majeſty and his people."

It was a new doctrine that the king ſhould diſcharge thoſe who had by no one act as yet rendered themſelves undeſerving confidence as miniſters, and appoint new ones, out of compliance to one part of the houſe of commons only; and it was impoſſible for him to comply with the reſolution, that he ſhould appoint ſuch as might have the confidence of that houſe, and of the public; for the majority of that houſe was compoſed of the members of the coalition, ſtriving for places and power, and the public, by their numerous addreſſes, were, in general, evidently averſe to their conduct, and incenſed at every thing belonging to the appellation of "Coalition."

alition." A diſſolution of parliament was the alone poſſible method to appoint an adminiſtration which had the confidence of the houſe of commons and the public; ſending the members to their conſtituents for approbation or rejection, and for freſh credentials. On the 23d of January, Mr. Pitt's Eaſt India bill was rejected in the houſe of commons, by 222 againſt 214 on the ſecond reading, without ſending it to a committee for diſcuſſion and amendment, and leave was given for Mr. Fox to prepare and bring in another. Now, ſome independent gentlemen (as they ſtyled themſelves) interpoſed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with diſtractions; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united adminiſtration, proved unſucceſsful.

The leaders of the coalition finding that miniſtry were reſolved to keep their places, procured a reſolution on February 2, "That it is the opinion of this houſe, that the preſent arduous and critical ſituation of public affairs requires the exertion of a firm, efficient, extended adminiſtration, entitled to the confidence of the people, and ſuch as may have a tendency to put an end to the unfortunate diviſions of this country." 2d. "That it is the opinion of this houſe, that the continuance of the preſent miniſters in their office is an *obſtacle* to the formation of ſuch an adminiſtration as may enjoy the confidence of this houſe, and tend to put an end to the unfortunate diviſions and diſtractions of the country." And the next day it was moved, "That the ſaid reſolutions be humbly laid before his majeſty by ſuch members of this houſe as are of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council," which was carried by 211 againſt 187.

At laſt, February 4, the houſe of lords took up the affair, and particularly adverted to the reſolution of the commons reſpecting the Eaſt India bills. It was contended, that the houſe of commons had arrogated to itſelf that power which the conſtitution had refuſed, for it denied to the lords of the treaſury that right which the legiſlature in its complete capacity had inveſted them with, namely, the power of permitting the Eaſt India directors to accept bills to ſuch an amount as the diſcretion of the treaſury-board ſhould admit. That no one branch of the legiſlature could in any manner ſuperſede a ſpecific ſtatute of the three conſtituent parts. That it was an uſurpation in any one branch of the legiſlature, the king, lords, or commons, to aſſume a power of ſuſpending or diſpenſing with an act of the legiſlature; and that the reſolution of the commons aſſumed a control, pointing out a ſpecific conduct. Accordingly, by a majority of 100 to 53, they reſolved, that for any branch of the legiſlature to aſſume a power to direct or control an authority veſted in any ſet of men by act of parliament, and to be exerciſed by them at their own diſcretion, is unconſtitutional and illegal. They next reſolved, that the conſtitution veſted in the crown the right of appointing his miniſters; and then moved for, and carried, the following addreſs to the king: "We acknowledge with great ſatisfaction the wiſdom of our happy conſtitution, which places in your majeſty's hands the undoubted authority of appointing to all the great offices of executive government. We have the firmeſt reliance in your majeſty's known wiſdom and paternal goodneſs, that you will be anxious to call into your ſervice men the moſt deſerving of the confidence of parliament and the public in general. In this confidence, we beg leave to approach your majeſty with our moſt earneſt aſſurances, that we will upon all occaſions ſupport your majeſty in the juſt exerciſe of thoſe prerogatives which the wiſdom of the law has entruſted to your majeſty, for the preſervation of our lives and properties, and upon the due and uninterrupted exerciſe of which muſt depend the bleſſings which the people muſt derive from the beſt of all forms of government." To which the king replied, "I thank you for this dutiful and loyal addreſs; and I deſire you will reſt aſſured that I have no object in the choice of miniſters, but to call into my ſervice men

the moſt deſerving of the confidence of my parliament, and of the public in general. I cannot too often repeat my aſſurances, that my conſtant ſtudy, in the exerciſe of every prerogative entruſted to me by the conſtitution, is to employ it for the welfare of my people."

From theſe proceedings it was evident that a war would ariſe between the two houſes, which could only be put an end to by a diſſolution of parliament. The commons exclaimed againſt the lords, and proceeded to vindicate themſelves to the public by the following reſolutions:

1. "That this houſe hath not aſſumed to itſelf any right to ſuſpend the execution of law.

2. "That it is conſtitutional, and agreeable to uſage, for the houſe of commons to declare their ſenſe and opinion reſpecting the exerciſe of every diſcretionary power, which, either by act of parliament or otherwiſe, is veſted in any body of men whatever for the public ſervice.

3. "That it is a duty peculiarly incumbent on this houſe, entruſted by the conſtitution with the ſole and ſeparate grant of public money, to watch over, and by their timely admonitions and interference, to endeavour to prevent the raſh and precipitate exerciſe of any power, however veſted, which may be attended with any danger to public credit, or with heavy loſſes to the revenue, and conſequently burthenſome upon the people.

4. "That the reſolutions of the 24th of December laſt, which declared the ſenſe and opinion of this houſe, "That the commiſſioners of the treaſury ought not to give their conſent to the acceptance of any bills drawn, or to be drawn from India, until it ſhall be made appear to this houſe that ſufficient means can be provided for the payment of the ſame, when they reſpectively fall due, by a regular application of the clear effects of the company, after diſcharging in their regular courſe the cuſtoms and other ſums due to the public, and the current demands upon the company, or till this houſe ſhall otherwiſe direct," were conſtitutional, founded on a ſenſe of duty towards the people of this kingdom, and dictated by a becoming anxiety for the preſervation of the revenue, and the ſupport of public credit.

5. "That if this houſe had in the unſettled ſtate of the Eaſt India company, which was and ſtill is under the conſideration of parliament, in order to form ſome proviſions for the relief of that company, and the ſecurity of the public, neglected to paſs the ſaid reſolution of the 24th of December, to guard againſt a new charge, to a very conſiderable amount, being raſhly incurred before any means of anſwering it had been ſtated or provided, they would have been juſtly and highly reſponſible to their conſtituents for the increaſe of thoſe evils and difficulties which are too ſeverely felt.

6. "That this houſe will, with the utmoſt moderation, but with the moſt decided firmneſs, maintain inviolably the principles of the conſtitution, and will perſevere in the diligent and conſcientious diſcharge of the duties which they owe to their conſtituents and to their poſterity, equally ſolicitous to preſerve their own privileges, and to avoid any encroachments on thoſe of either of the other branches of the legiſlature."

Perſons of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and independent character in the houſe of commons, and in the kingdom, now wiſhed that a diſſolution had taken place weeks before, even at the firſt forming of the coalition. Many laboured for a conciliation between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox, and their confidential friends; and lord North, at length, conſented to be left out in the forming a new adminiſtration; but the coalition inſiſted on Mr. Pitt's reſignation as a preliminary, without which there could be no treaty. This being refuſed, a majority of 21 out of 333 members of the houſe of commons voted the following addreſs to the king:—"That this houſe,

impreſſed with the moſt dutiful ſenſe of his majeſty's paternal regard for the welfare of his people, relies on his majeſty's royal wiſdom, that he will take ſuch meaſures as, *by removing any obſtacle to the formation of ſuch an adminiſtration as this houſe has declared to be requiſite in the preſent critical and arduous ſtate of public affairs*, may tend to give effect to the wiſhes of his faithful commons, which have already been moſt humbly repreſented to his majeſty."

The reply was mild, but in favour of his ſervants. "Gentlemen, I am deeply ſenſible how highly it concerns the honour of my crown, and the welfare of my people, which is the object always neareſt my heart, that the public affairs ſhould be conducted by a firm, efficient, united, and extended adminiſtration, entitled to the confidence of my people, and ſuch as may have a tendency to put an end to the unhappy diviſions and diſtractions in this country.—Very recent endeavours have already been employed, on my part, to unite in the public ſervice, on a fair and equal footing, thoſe whoſe joint efforts appear to me moſt capable of producing that happy effect: theſe endeavours have not had the ſucceſs I wiſhed. I ſhall be always deſirous of taking every ſtep moſt conducive to ſuch an object; but I cannot ſee that it would, in any degree, be advanced by the diſmiſſion of thoſe at preſent in my ſervice.

"I obſerve, at the ſame time, that there is *no charge* or *complaint* ſuggeſted againſt my preſent miniſters, nor is any one or more of them ſpecifically objected to; and numbers of my ſubjects have expreſſed to me, in the warmeſt manner, their ſatisfaction in the late changes I have made in my councils. Under theſe circumſtances, I truſt, my faithful commons will not wiſh that the eſſential offices of executive government ſhould be vacated, until I ſee a proſpect that ſuch a plan of union as I have called for, and they have pointed out, may be carried into effect."

This anſwer brought things to a criſis: the oppoſition now talked of withholding all ſupplies, till the king diſmiſſed his miniſters, and proceeded, March 1ſt, to vote another addreſs of more length and greater freedom, which was carried by 201 to 189, as follows:—"That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, moſt humbly to repreſent to his majeſty the ſatisfaction his faithful commons derive from the late moſt gracious aſſurances we have received, that his majeſty concurs with us in opinion, that it concerns the honour of his crown, and the welfare of his people, that the public affairs ſhould be conducted by a firm, efficient, extended, united adminiſtration, entitled to the confidence of his people, and ſuch as may have a tendency to put an end to the unhappy diviſions and diſtractions of this country.

"To acknowledge his majeſty's paternal goodneſs in his late moſt gracious endeavours to give effect to the object of our late dutiful repreſentation to his majeſty.

"To lament that the failure of this his majeſty's moſt gracious endeavours ſhould be conſidered as a final bar to the accompliſhing ſo ſalutary and deſirable a purpoſe, and to expreſs our concern and diſappointment that his majeſty has not been adviſed to take any farther ſtep towards uniting in the public ſervice thoſe whoſe joint efforts have recently appeared to his majeſty moſt capable of producing ſo happy an effect.

"That this houſe with all humility claims it as its right, and on every proper occaſion feels it to be their bounden duty, to adviſe his majeſty touching the exerciſe of any branch of his royal prerogative.

"That we ſubmit it to his majeſty's royal conſideration, that the continuance of an adminiſtration which does not poſſeſs the confidence of the repreſentatives of the people muſt be injurious to the public ſervice.

"That this houſe can have no intereſt diſtinct and ſeparate from that of their conſtituents, and that they therefore feel themſelves called upon to repeat thoſe loyal and dutiful aſſurances they have already expreſſed of their reliance on his ma-

jeſty's paternal regard for the welfare of his people, that his majeſty would graciouſly enable them to execute thoſe important truſts which the conſtitution has veſted in them, with honour to themſelves, and advantage to the public, by the formation of a new adminiſtration, appointed under circumſtances which may tend to conciliate the minds of his faithful commons, and give energy and ſtability to his majeſty's councils.

" That as his majeſty's faithful commons, upon the matureſt deliberation, cannot but conſider the continuance of the preſent miniſters as an unwarrantable obſtacle to his majeſty's moſt gracious purpoſe, to comply with their wiſhes in the formation of ſuch an adminiſtration as his majeſty, in concurrence with the unanimous reſolution of this houſe, ſeems to think requiſite in the preſent exigencies of the country, they feel themſelves bound to remain firm in the wiſh expreſſed to his majeſty in their late humble addreſs, and do therefore find themſelves obliged again to beſeech his majeſty, that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to lay the foundation of a ſtrong and ſtable government, by the *previous removal* of his preſent miniſters."

To this addreſs, a ſtrong and deciſive anſwer was returned, which evidenced firmneſs in the king or his cabinet, as, " Gentlemen, I have already expreſſed to you how ſenſible I am of the advantages to be derived from ſuch an adminiſtration as was pointed out in your unanimous reſolution. And I aſſured you that I was deſirous of taking every ſtep moſt conducive to ſuch an object: I remain in the ſame ſentiments; but I continue equally convinced, that it is an object not likely to be obtained by the *diſmiſſion* of my preſent miniſters.

" I muſt repeat, that no charge or complaint, or any ſpecific objection, is yet made againſt any of them: if there were any ſuch ground for their removal at preſent, it ought to be *equally* a reaſon for not admitting them as a part of that extended and united adminiſtration which you ſtate to be requiſite.

" I did not conſider the failure of my recent endeavours as a final bar to the accompliſhment of the purpoſe which I had in view, if it could have been obtained on thoſe purpoſes of fairneſs and equality, without which it can neither be honourable to thoſe who are concerned, nor lay the foundation of ſuch a ſtrong and ſtable government as may be of laſting advantage to the country—but I know of *no further ſteps* which I can take, that are likely to remove the difficulties which obſtruct that deſirable end.

" I have never called in queſtion the right of my faithful commons to offer me their advice upon every proper occaſion, touching the exerciſe of any branch of my prerogative.

" I ſhall be ready at all times to exerciſe it, and give it the moſt attentive conſideration—they will ever find me diſpoſed to ſhew my regard to the true principles of the conſtitution, and to take ſuch meaſures as may beſt conduce to the ſatisfaction and proſperity of my kingdom."

The gentlemen who led the houſe of commons, or the ſmall majority of it, into thoſe reſolutions and addreſſes, began now to ſee their miſtake. Their arguments juſtified all the evils that had attended lord North's adminiſtration, ſince he had for many years the full confidence of the houſe, and would juſtify every other corrupt adminiſtration. But they had advanced too far, to retreat with decency, and accordingly proceeded to poſtpone the mutiny bill as a means of protracting their political exiſtence, which they carried by only a majority of nine. On March 8th, Mr. Fox made his laſt effort, and moved for a third addreſs, or rather *remonſtrance*, the ſtrongeſt preſented to any king ſince the unhappy days of Charles I.

Reſolved, " That an humble repreſentation be preſented to his majeſty, moſt humbly to teſtify the ſurpriſe and affliction of this houſe, on receiving the anſwer which

which his majeſty's miniſters have adviſed, to the dutiful and ſeaſonable addreſs of this houſe, concerning one of the moſt important acts of his majeſty's government.

" To expreſs our concern, that when his majeſty's paternal goodneſs has graciouſly inclined his majeſty to be ſenſible of the advantage to be derived from ſuch an adminiſtration as was pointed out in our reſolution, his majeſty ſhould ſtill be induced to prefer the opinions of individuals to the repeated advice of the repreſentatives of his people in parliament aſſembled, with reſpect to the means of obtaining ſo deſirable an end.

" To repreſent to his majeſty, that a preference of this nature is as injurious to the true intereſts of the crown, as it is wholly repugnant to the ſpirit of our free conſtitution; that ſyſtems founded on ſuch a preference are not in truth entirely new in this country; that they have been the characteriſtic features of thoſe unfortunate reigns, the maxims of which are now juſtly and univerſally exploded, while his majeſty and his royal progenitors have been fixed in the hearts of their people, and have commanded the reſpect and admiration of all the nations on the earth, by a conſtant and uniform attention to the advice of their commons, however adverſe ſuch advice may have been to the opinions of the executive ſervants of the crown.

" To aſſure his majeſty, that we neither have diſputed, nor mean in any diſtance to diſpute, much leſs to deny, his majeſty's undoubted prerogative of appointing to the executive offices of ſtate ſuch perſons as to his majeſty's wiſdom ſhall ſeem meet. But, at the ſame time, that we muſt, with all humility, again ſubmit to his majeſty's royal wiſdom, that no adminiſtration, however legally appointed, can ſerve his majeſty and the public with effect, which does not enjoy the confidence of this houſe. That in his majeſty's preſent adminiſtration we cannot confide: the circumſtances under which it was conſtituted, and the grounds upon which it continues, have created juſt ſuſpicions in the breaſts of his faithful commons, that principles are adopted and views entertained unfriendly to the privileges of this houſe, and to the freedom of our excellent conſtitution. That we have made no charge againſt any of them, becauſe it is their removal, and not their puniſhment, which we have deſired: and that we humbly conceive we are warranted, by the ancient uſage of this houſe, to deſire ſuch removal, without making any charge whatever. That confidence may be very prudently withheld where no criminal proceſs can be properly inſtituted.

" That although we have made no criminal charge againſt any individual of his majeſty's miniſters, yet, with all humility, we do conceive, that we have ſtated to his majeſty very diſtinct objections, and very forcible reaſons againſt their continuance. That, with regard to the propriety of admitting either the preſent miniſters, or any other perſons as a part of that extended and united adminiſtration which his majeſty, in concurrence with the ſentiments of this houſe, conſiders as requiſite; it is a point upon which we are too well acquainted with the bounds of our duty to preſume to offer any advice to his majeſty; well knowing it to be the undoubted prerogative of his majeſty, to appoint his miniſters without any previous advice from either houſe of parliament; and our duty humbly to offer to his majeſty our advice, when ſuch appointments ſhall appear to us to be prejudicial to the public ſervice.

" To acknowledge, with gratitude, his majeſty's goodneſs in not conſidering the failure of his recent endeavours as a final bar to the accompliſhment of the gracious purpoſe which his majeſty has in view; and to expreſs the great concern and mortification with which we find ourſelves obliged to declare, that the conſolation which we ſhould naturally have derived from his majeſty's moſt gracious diſpoſition, is conſiderably abated, by underſtanding that his majeſty's *adviſers* have not thought fit to

ſuggeſt

ſuggeſt to his majeſty any further ſteps to remove the difficulties which obſtruct ſo deſirable an end.

" To recall to his majeſty's recollection, that his faithful commons have already ſubmitted to his majeſty, moſt humbly, but moſt diſtinctly, their opinion upon this ſubject; that they can have no intereſts but thoſe of his majeſty and of their conſtituents; whereas it is needleſs to ſuggeſt to his majeſty's wiſdom and diſcernment, that individual adviſers may be actuated by very different motives.

" To expreſs our moſt unfeigned gratitude for his majeſty's royal aſſurances, that he does not call in queſtion the right of this houſe to offer their advice to his majeſty on every proper occaſion, touching the exerciſe of any branch of his royal prerogative; and of his majeſty's readineſs at all times to receive ſuch advice, and to give it the moſt attentive conſideration.

" To declare that we recogniſe, in theſe gracious expreſſions, thoſe excellent and conſtitutional ſentiments which we have ever been accuſtomed to hear from the throne ſince the glorious æra of the Revolution, and which have peculiarly characteriſed his majeſty and the princes of his illuſtrious houſe; but to lament that theſe moſt gracious expreſſions, while they inſpire us with additional affection and gratitude towards his majeſty's royal perſon, do not a little contribute to increaſe our ſuſpicions of thoſe men who have adviſed his majeſty, in direct contradiction to theſe aſſurances, to neglect the advice of his commons, and to retain in his ſervice an adminiſtration whoſe continuance in office we have ſo repeatedly and ſo diſtinctly condemned.

" To repreſent to his majeſty, that it has anciently been the practice of this houſe to withhold ſupplies until grievances were redreſſed; and that if we were to follow this courſe in the preſent conjuncture, we ſhould be warranted in our proceeding as well by the moſt approved precedents as by the ſpirit of the conſtitution itſelf; but if in conſideration of the very peculiar exigencies of the times we ſhould be induced to wave, for the preſent, the exerciſe in this inſtance of our undoubted legal and conſtitutional mode of obtaining redreſs, that we humbly implore his majeſty not to impute our forbearance to any want of ſincerity in our complaints, or diſtruſt in the juſtice of our cauſe.

" That we know and are ſure that the proſperity of his majeſty's dominions in former times has been, under Divine Providence, owing to the harmony which has for near a century prevailed uninterruptedly between the crown and this houſe. That we are convinced that there is no way to extricate this country from its preſent difficulties, but by purſuing the ſame ſyſtem to which we have been indebted, at various periods of our hiſtory, for our ſucceſſes abroad, and which is at all times ſo neceſſary for our tranquillity at home. That we feel a continuation of the preſent adminiſtration to be an innovation of that happy ſyſtem. That we cannot but expect from their exiſtence, under the diſpleaſure of this houſe, every misfortune naturally incident to a weak and diſtracted government. That if we had concealed from his majeſty our honeſt ſentiments upon this important criſis, we ſhould have been in ſome degree reſponſible for the miſchiefs which are but too certain to enſue.

" That we have done our duty to his majeſty and our conſtituents in pointing out the evil, and in humbly imploring redreſs; that the blame and reſponſibility muſt now lie wholly upon thoſe who have preſumed to adviſe his majeſty to act in contradiction to the uniform maxims which have hitherto governed the conduct of his majeſty, as well as every other prince of his illuſtrious houſe; upon thoſe who have diſregarded the opinions, and neglected the admonitions of the repreſentatives of his people; and who have thereby attempted to ſet up a new ſyſtem of executive adminiſtration, which, wanting the confidence of this houſe, and acting in defiance to our reſolutions, muſt prove at once inadequate by its *inefficiency* to the neceſ-

neceſſary objects of government, and dangerous by its example to the liberties of the people."

This repreſentation and addreſs of the commons to the crown, was carried by a majority of *one*, 191, to 190, and requiring no anſwer, terminated the diſpute between the different branches of the legiſlature. The coalition party gave up the conteſt, and looked forward to a ſpeedy diſſolution of the houſe. The national buſineſs went on regularly and quietly—the neceſſary bills were forwarded in both houſes, and March 24th an end was put to the ſeſſion by the following ſpeech from the throne:

My Lords and Gentlemen,

"On a full conſideration of the preſent ſituation of affairs, and of the extraordinary circumſtances which have produced it, I am induced to put an end to this ſeſſion of parliament: I feel it a duty which I owe to the conſtitution and to the country, in ſuch a ſituation, to recur as ſpeedily as poſſible to the ſenſe of my people, by calling a new parliament. I truſt that this means will tend to obviate the miſchiefs ariſing from the unhappy diviſions and diſtractions which have lately ſubſiſted; and that the various important objects which will require conſideration, may be afterwards proceeded upon with *leſs interruption*, and with *happier effect*. I can have no other object but to preſerve the true principles of our free and happy conſtitution, and to employ the powers entruſted to me by law, for the only end for which they were given, the good of my people."

The next day a proclamation was iſſued for diſſolving the parliament and calling a new one, agreeably to the deſires and addreſſes of a great part of the kingdom. At that juncture, the great ſeal was ſtolen from the houſe of the lord chancellor, which occaſioned many ſuſpicions as if done by more than ordinary felons; but nothing farther appeared, and a new ſeal was preſently made. On the 18th of May the new parliament aſſembled, and the commons choſe Mr. Cornwall, the ſpeaker of the late houſe, for their preſent ſpeaker. The next day, his majeſty addreſſed them from the throne, and concluded with theſe words: "The affairs of the Eaſt India company form an object of deliberation deeply connected with the general intereſts of the country. While you feel a juſt anxiety to provide for the good government of our poſſeſſions in that part of the world, you will, I truſt, never loſe ſight of the effect which any meaſure to be adopted for that purpoſe may have on our own conſtitution, and our dear intereſts at home. You will find me always deſirous to concur with you in ſuch meaſures as may be of laſting benefit to my people. I have no wiſh but to conſult their proſperity by a conſtant attention to every object of national concern, by an uniform adherence to the true principles of our free conſtitution, and by ſupporting and maintaining, in their juſt balance, the rights and privileges of every branch of the legiſlature." A very feeble oppoſition was made to the addreſs of thanks in the houſe of lords, and it ſoon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr. Pitt's favour. Many whom lord North had bound to him by good offices when in power were thrown out; and others deſerted him, finding his vaſt influence was at an end. Several of Mr. Fox's friends alſo loſt their ſeats, and in the firſt two conteſts, it was plain that the power of the coalition was broken; their views were diſappointed in turning out the peace-makers and ſeating themſelves in their room, their forces melted away, and the young miniſter obtained a complete triumph over them. The firſt queſtion on which they tried their ſtrength, was the Weſtminſter election. Mr. Fox wanted a vote of cenſure on the high bailiff for not making a return to the writ on the appointed day, but delaying it for a ſcrutiny. A previous queſtion was put on the motion, and carried by a majority of 147;—283 againſt 136. The ſame evening, May 24th, on a diviſion of the houſe for an addreſs to the king's ſpeech, the numbers for it, without any alteration or amendment, were 282 againſt 114.

Notwith-

Notwithſtanding ſo great a majority, ſtill the members of the oppoſition much impeded the wheels of government, and threw many difficulties in the way of adminiſtration. On the 14th of June, Mr. Burke, in a long ſpeech, expatiated on the merits of the laſt parliament, reprobated the king's ſpeech at the opening of the new one, and the addreſs of thanks for it, and ſtated that his purpoſe was to move, "That an humble remonſtrance be preſented to his majeſty, aſſerting the rights of the houſe of commons, and reprobating the conduct of the king's miniſters in having adviſed his majeſty to break his royal word, and diſſolve his parliament after he had pledged his faith to the laſt houſe of commons, that he would not make ſuch an exerciſe of his prerogative before they had got through the arduous buſineſs upon their hands; and likewiſe for having adviſed his majeſty to make a ſpeech to the new parliament from the throne, full of doctrines the moſt unconſtitutional and alarming." The motion conſiſted of many pages, which the ſpeaker was above an hour in reading to the houſe, containing a defence of the laſt houſe of commons, a detail of their conſtitutional rights, and a ſevere reprehenſion of his majeſty's miniſters for having violated them in various inſtances. It was negatived without a diviſion, but as the main queſtion was ſuffered to be put, the whole of the motion was of courſe entered on the journals of the houſe, which ſeems to have been the mover's only intention. The miniſter now went on with his ways and means for ſupplies, and by lowering the tea duty, which he thought would ruin the ſmugglers, he was forced to deviſe other taxes which are found very heavy and burdenſome to the public; the window tax eſpecially, which is both partial and oppreſſive, ſcreening the lordly and wealthy, who are to pay but for two houſes, and the higheſt ſum for each is only 20l.

Mr. Pitt brought in his famous Eaſt India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company *. Time alone can diſcover whether it be framed with wiſdom, and adequate to the great purpoſes intended, and held forth to view. With very little oppoſition, all the ſyſtem of new bills and taxes was framed and carried through both houſes, and the parliamentary campaign cloſed on the 20th of Auguſt, with a complimentary ſpeech from the throne, wiſhing his faithful ſubjects to meet the new heavy burdens with fortitude and patience.

On the 25th of January 1785, the parliament aſſembled. Amongſt a variety of matter which preſſed on their attention, none ſeemed of more conſequence than the ſtate of parliamentary repreſentation, the ſyſtem of fortifications propoſed by the duke of Richmond, the affairs of India, and the propoſitions for a trading intercourſe with Ireland. The buſineſs of parliamentary reform appears to have been taken up by Mr. Pitt as a miniſterial meaſure, and to have received from him a conſiderable ſhare of attention; he accordingly introduced a ſpecific plan for that purpoſe on the 18th of April, which he prefaced by a hiſtory of parliamentary repreſentation from a very remote period. The plan was to give one hundred members to the popular intereſt of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thouſand perſons, who, by the exiſting proviſions of law, were excluded from it. This acceſſion to the popular intereſt was to be principally obtained by the ſuppreſſion of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their repreſentatives to the counties; ſo that the number of the houſe of commons would remain the ſame. After a debate of conſiderable length it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

From the apprehenſions of the nation, during the late war, for the ſafety of the dock-yards, whilſt the combined fleets were in the channel, and no adequate naval force to oppoſe them, the duke of Richmond conceived the idea of fortifying them, as the beſt protection from future inſult or danger. Conſiderable ſums had been

* Page 241.

annually granted for this purpoſe, but the greatneſs of the expence at length attracted the attention of a reſpectable part of the houſe of commons, and after a full diſcuſſion of the utility of the plan it was determined (finally in the following ſeſſion) to diſcontinue the works as uſeleſs, and, in ſome reſpects, as dangerous.

The Iriſh propoſitions were another ſubject which engaged the attention of parliament. This new ſyſtem of intercourſe between Great Britain and Ireland was firſt introduced into the parliament of the latter kingdom by Mr. Orde on the 7th of February, in the form of ten propoſitions; theſe, by a ſmall altération, and the diſtribution of the ſubject of one of them into two heads, were increaſed to eleven. They received the aſſent of both houſes in that kingdom, and on the 22d of the ſame month, were communicated to the parliament of Great Britain by Mr. Pitt, chancellor of the exchequer. The leading principle in this plan, was the equalizing the duties on the produce and manufactures of both countries; and for the benefits communicated thereby to the ſiſter kingdom, ſhe was in return to give a certain portion of her hereditary revenue towards the maintenance of the navy of the empire.—The ſubject had received but little diſcuſſion, when the fears and prejudices of the manufacturers were rouſed in every part of the kingdom; innumerable petitions were preſented and evidences heard; committees were formed from aſſemblies of theſe manufacturers, who were directed to oppoſe the paſſing the propoſitions into a law. Theſe circumſtances, together with the ſtrength of oppoſition in the houſe of commons, produced ſuch an alteration in the propoſitions that they were extended to twenty. After having paſſed through both houſes, when they arrived in Ireland thus multiplied and thus altered, they met with the moſt violent oppoſition, and though there appeared in the Iriſh houſe of commons 127 againſt 108 in their favour, yet the majority being ſo ſmall, adminiſtration thought it prudent to avoid the riſque of a defeat in the progreſs of the bill, and therefore withdrew it in two days after. The firm diſpoſition of the people of Ireland obliged adminiſtration to ſoften their tone, and to bring in ſuch bills as were calculated to afford them effectual commercial relief.

The affairs of India, although they did not engage the public attention ſo much this year as the former, yet the proceedings of the board of controul afforded matter for much parliamentary debate, but no meaſure of conſequence aroſe from this ſource.

Amongſt the variety of new taxes impoſed in this ſeſſion, that called the ſhop-tax received the ſtrongeſt oppoſition; and by the perſevering applications of thoſe who were particularly aggrieved, its repeal was at length obtained.

In conſequence of ſevere prohibitions having been laid on the importation of Britiſh manufactures into the Auſtrian dominions, and ſeveral reſtrictions on their introduction into France, the miniſter opened a negotiation with the latter kingdom, for a more liberal commercial intercourſe between the two countries, and appointed Mr. Eden envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary for that purpoſe. A treaty was accordingly concluded and ratified by both houſes of parliament. This was a meaſure of great political conſequence, as it tended to break aſunder the national prejudices, which had exiſted for many ages between the two countries.

Parliament aſſembled on the 24th of January 1786, and amongſt the various meaſures agitated, the plan for eſtabliſhing a ſinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their moſt immediate attention. This million is produced by the yearly income of the ſtate exceeding the permanent level of its expenditure by a ſum of 900,000l. which may be increaſed to a million by means in no wiſe burthenſome to the people. This meaſure which had the concurrence of every man, who deſired the emancipation of the ſtate from the accumulated load of debt and taxes, was carried into a law, which created commiſſioners for carrying the purpoſes of this valuable act into execution.

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We come now to a very important tranſaction of the preſent times, the impeachment of Mr. Warren Haſtings, late governor general of Bengal. The characters both of the accuſer and of the perſon accuſed were ſuch as to give dignity and intereſt to the ſcope of the buſineſs. Mr. Burke, a man of the moſt original genius, of the moſt cultivated talents, and the moſt unwearied application. Mr. Haſtings, on the other hand, a man of ſtrong imagination, of boundleſs ſpirit and enterprize, and of extenſive obſervation. On the 17th of February, Mr. Burke explained, in ſome degree, the mode of proceeding he was deſirous to adopt; and, in the courſe of the ſeſſion moved for a multitude of papers to ground and ſubſtantiate his charges upon. Theſe were at length produced, and Mr. Haſtings heard at the bar of the houſe of commons in his defence. The debates which aroſe on the ſubject terminated in reſolutions, That certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment againſt the late governor general of Bengal. This important buſineſs is ſtill depending, notwithſtanding the ſtrenuous endeavours of the friends of Mr. Haſtings to maintain, at the opening of the preſent parliament, that the impeachment had naturally fallen to the ground by the diſſolution of the laſt parliament: a doctrine highly dangerous to the liberties of this country, by which it would be in the power of the crown to put a ſtop to any proſecution againſt the greateſt enemies to the ſtate; and the houſe of commons had the public ſpirit to reſolve that the trial of Mr. Haſtings ſhall ſtill proceed.

The feeble attempt of an obſcure and contemptible maniac, of the name of Margaret Nicholſon, againſt the life of the ſovereign, in the face of day, and in the ſight of a multitude of ſpectators, on the 2d of Auguſt, was productive of no other effect than to ſhew how much he was beloved by his ſubjects. The general exultation which prevailed after that event, reflected honour on the people as well as the king.

The conſolidation of the cuſtoms and exciſe was the moſt important circumſtance deſerving of attention in the year 1787. This was a meaſure of incredible labour and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to commerce, by facilitating and ſimplifying the intricacies attendant on mercantile tranſactions, and the payment of duties; a regulation which was duly and permanently effected. It had failed under the inert and feeble efforts of lord North; and its completion, ſo evidently productive of national benefit, drew the moſt generous applauſes even from the enemies and oppoſers of the miniſter. The plan for effecting this meaſure was not brilliant, but ſimple in its nature. It promiſed no flattering accumulation of revenue, but ſuch an arrangement as would relieve the officer of government from much trouble, and exempt the ſubject from embarraſſment and injuſtice.

The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the coaſt of Africa, for the purpoſe of purchaſing negro-ſlaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the Weſt-India iſlands, and certain ports of the continent of America, does not appear till of late years to have been conſidered with that general attention which ſuch a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice ſo abhorrent in its nature to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. This may probably have been owing, partly to the diſtance of the object, which tended both to conceal the ſufferings, and to leſſen the ſympathy of the public for the unfortunate ſufferers; and partly to the connivance of politicians, unwilling to examine too ſeverely into the neceſſity of the means by which diſtant colonies were enabled to pour luxury and wealth into the mother-countries. The firſt public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a ſtop to this traffic, was by the Quakers of the ſouthern provinces of America, who, ſoon after the eſtabliſhment of their independence, not only preſented for this purpoſe a ſtrong and pathetic addreſs to their ſeveral legiſlative aſſemblies, but actually proceeded, as is ſaid, in many inſtances to emancipate the ſlaves that were in their poſſeſſion. The meaſures taken

by the American legiſlatures, in conſequence of this application, are before the public. In Great Britain the ſame ſociety appears alſo to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, preſented a ſimilar petition to the parliament of this kingdom. The cauſe ſoon after became extremely popular. A great number of pamphlets were publiſhed upon the ſubject; ſeveral eminent divines recommended it from the pulpit and in printed diſcourſes, and petitions were preſented to the legiſlature from the two univerſities, and from ſeveral of the moſt conſiderable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

His majeſty's miniſters thought it proper to inſtitute an enquiry, before a committee of the privy council, into the facts and allegations contained in the repreſentations of both parties upon the ſubject. The firſt public notice that was taken of the ſubject was an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, ſoon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to bring forward a meaſure reſpecting the ſlave-trade. That gentleman being much indiſpoſed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following reſolution, "That this houſe will early in the next ſeſſion of parliament proceed to take into conſideration the circumſtances of the ſlave-trade complained of in the petitions preſented to the houſe, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimouſly carried. After this on the 21ſt of May, ſir William Dolben moved the houſe for leave to bring in a bill to regulate the tranſportation of the natives of Africa to the Britiſh colonies in the Weſt Indies *. By the bill now propoſed, the number of ſlaves to be tranſported in any ſhip was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief till ſome more permanent expedient could be be deviſed by the legiſlature. Having paſſed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it alſo paſſed, after having received ſeveral amendments; ſome of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower-houſe, a new bill was brought in, which paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent.

The year 1788, being the hundredth anniverſary of the glorious revolution in 1688, the 4th of November being the birth-day of king William, the inſtrument under Providence who completed that event, and the fifth of this month being the anniverſary of his landing, were obſerved by many ſocieties in London, and other parts of the kingdom, not only with feſtivity, but with devotion and thankſgiving. At Dublin this auſpicious anniverſary was obſerved at the caſtle with more than ordinary ſolemnity. The appearance of nobility and gentry at the levee was ſuch as evinced their attachment to the Revolution in favour of that illuſtrious monarch, and its happy conſequences in the eſtabliſhment of the preſent royal family on the throne of theſe realms. After the levee, his excellency, attended by a numerous train of the firſt perſonages in the kingdom, and eſcorted by the guard uſual on ſuch occaſions, went from the Caſtle to College-Green, and after ſaluting

* That there was a neceſſity for adopting this propoſition will moſt clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the courſe of the debate. It appeared that five feet ſix inches in length, and ſixteen inches in breadth was the ſpace allowed on an average to each ſlave. The lower deck of the veſſels was intirely covered with bodies, and the ſpace between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which ſeldom amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform alſo covered with bodies. Five perſons in every hundred periſhed at the loweſt computation in a voyage of ſix weeks continuance, which, according to the moſt accurate eſtimates of human life, was ſeventeen times the uſual rate of mortality. It was, indeed, much more, becauſe in the eſtimate of mortality, perſons of every age were included, while in an African voyage the aged were intirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such was the ruinous nature of the trade in the moſt favourable circumſtances; but, in the voyage to the more diſtant parts of Africa, the mortality was ſtated to be twice as great; and conſequently, thirty four perſons periſhed, at the loweſt eſtimation for one, that would have died in the courſe of nature.

the equeſtrian ſtatue of king William, proceeded from thence round Stephen's Green. The appearance on this occaſion was ſplendid, and the number of equipages greater than had been known for many years.—At Edinburgh this day was obſerved as a day of ſolemn thankſgiving, as directed by an act of the General Aſſembly of the church of Scotland paſſed on the 30th of May in this year; and by this act all the miniſters of that national church were enjoined to obſerve the ſame. By the publication of this act nearly ſix months before the annual return of the day, that aſſembly had the honour to take the lead, in their reſolution to celebrate this glorious event: and it ought to be mentioned, to the honour of that high-ſpirited and noble-minded people, that the principles of the Revolution are well underſtood and warmly embraced by them.—At Whittington, between Sheffield and Cheſterfield, adjoining to a decent modern building, is an old thatched cottage, the upper ſtory of which lighted by a very ſmall window, is ſhewn as the apartment called by the antirevolutioniſts, "the plotting parlour," in which the glorious buſineſs was planned. To this place the illuſtrious leaders, the earls of Devonſhire and Danby, lord Delamere, and Mr. John Darcy, came diſguiſed, and concerted the meaſures which happily produced ſo much good to this country; and, in an oaken cheſt, ſtill preſerved in a corner of the room, the minutes of the meeting were depoſited; here is alſo to be ſeen the old armed chair in which the earl of Devonſhire is ſaid to have ſat. The deſcendants of the illuſtrious houſes of Cavendiſh, Oſborne, Boothe, and Darcy (for the venerable duke of Leeds, whoſe age would not allow him to attend, had ſent his two grandſons, in whom the blood of Oſborne and Darcy is united); a numerous and powerful gentry; a wealthy and reſpectable yeomanry; a hardy, yet decent and attentive peaſantry; whoſe intelligent countenances ſhewed that they underſtood, and would be firm to preſerve that bleſſing, for which they were aſſembled to return thanks to Almighty God, preſented a truly ſolemn ſpectacle, and, to the eye of a philoſopher, the moſt intereſting that can be imagined. It was not the leaſt pleaſing circumſtance attending this meeting, that all party diſtinctions were forgotten. Perſons of all ranks and denominations wore orange and blue, in memory of our glorious deliverer. And the moſt reſpectable Roman-catholic families, ſatisfied with the mild toleration of government in the exerciſe of their religion, vied in their endeavours to ſhow how juſt a ſenſe they had of the value of civil liberty.

In the ſpace of only four years which had elapſed ſince the complete triumph of the ſovereign and the nation over the "Coalition," Great Britain, under the conduct of a miniſter, who had not yet attained his thirtieth year, had riſen from a ſtate of unexampled depreſſion to her ancient ſuperiority among the European kingdoms. The finances had been re-eſtabliſhed by a ſyſtem of unremitting and ſevere œconomy. Commerce, aided and emancipated by the wiſe regulations of an enlarged policy, opened new ſources, and navigated ſeas hitherto almoſt unexplored, in the proſecution of its objects. Public credit attained a point of elevation and permanence unparelleled ſince the commencement of the unfortunate war with America. The councils of England, conducted on principles not of a crooked duplicity, but of rectitude and magnanimity, excited reſpect and approbation in the ſurrounding ſtates, while they diffuſed proſperity and felicity over every part of the iſland.

Political alliances and connections on the continent added the proſpect of ſtability to every meaſure which was calculated for internal ſecurity or commercial advantage. The calamities of lord North's adminiſtration, and the anarchy which ſucceeded that unfortunate period: the defalcation of thirteen provinces, and of both the Floridas from the empire: the diſgraces of Saratoga, and of the Cheſapeake: the tumults and conflagration of London; in a word, the varied and accumulated misfortunes, which for a long ſeries of years oppreſſed, and had almoſt overwhelmed the commonwealth, were already eraſed from the recollection. A mild and happy

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calm had ſmoothed theſe troubled waves. The ſovereign was deſervedly dear to every rank and order of his ſubjects, who united in regarding him as their father and benefactor. The government, beloved at home, was reſpected abroad; and the people, happy beyond the example of former times, looked up with equal affection and veneration towards the ſource of theſe multiplied benefits.

But in the midſt of this flattering aſpect of affairs, an unexpected and diſaſtrous change was preparing to manifeſt itſelf, which no human prudence could have foreſeen, or precautions delayed. We were deſtined to experience in its fulleſt extent, the mutability of fortune and the fragility of greatneſs; to hold out a memorable leſſon to our own and to future times, that the ſplendor and felicity of man, however ſolid the foundations on which they may ſeem to repoſe, are in the hands of a ſuperior being, who confers or withdraws them in an inſtant. We are arrived at that awful period, which, from a variety of motives, we ſhould wiſh to cover under a veil of oblivion, if the publicity of the great leading facts, and ſtill more, if the inſtruction conveyed by the narration itſelf, as one of the moſt intereſting portions of modern annals, did not ſuperſede any perſonal inclinations. It is not, however, either in our plan or our intention to relate the *private* hiſtory of that extraordinary period; or to drag into day-light facts and anecdotes, which, curious and entertaining as they muſt appear to poſterity, are, in every ſenſe, unfit for the peruſal of the preſent age. Sentiments of duty, delicacy, and reſpect towards a prince inexpreſſibly dear to his people: towards a queen, who, during near thirty years, and in every relation of domeſtic life, has been blameleſs and exemplary: towards thoſe illuſtrious perſons, on whom the ſceptre of George III. muſt, in the ordinary progreſs of events, in ſome future, and, as we truſt, far diſtant period, devolve: even motives of prudence, decorum, and propriety, prevent us from giving any other but the outline of a picture, which muſt excite the moſt painful emotions in every generous mind to review.

It is not eaſy to imagine or to parallel, in the hiſtory of the preſent century, a period of more perfect ſecurity than that which England preſented in the autumn of 1788. The king, accompanied by the queen, and ſurrounded by his family, after having tried the effects of a relaxation from public buſineſs, and of the medicinal waters of Cheltenham, had returned to Windſor; not, indeed, in a ſtate of vigorous health, but by no means in any ſuch declining ſtate of indiſpoſition as to excite alarm among his ſubjects. The prince of Wales, as uſual, paſſed the ſummer at his Marine Pavilion at Brighthelmſtone; Mr. Pitt, occupied in the functions of his ſtation, was detained in the vicinity of the capital; while Mr. Fox, whoſe faculties of body and mind had been not a little exerciſed and exhauſted, by a toilſome attendance in Covent-garden, during the extreme heats of Auguſt, which was thought requiſite to ſecure the election of lord John Townſend as member for Weſtminſter, indulged a degree of neceſſary repoſe, and withdrew for a ſhort time from the hurry of political life. He quitted England, and repaired to Switzerland and Italy, as a ſcene calculated to amuſe and entertain while it reſtored and invigorated a conſtitution impaired by conſtant exertion. The great leaders of miniſtry and oppoſition, having laid aſide their political animoſities, were diſperſed in peaceful inactivity over every part of the kingdom. From this ſtate of public recreation and felicity, the nation was rudely and ſuddenly awoke, by the reports of his majeſty being attacked with an unexpected and dangerous illneſs. The preciſe nature of it was for ſeveral days unaſcertained and unexplained, even to thoſe whoſe reſidence near the court ſhould have enabled them to obtain early and authentic information. Meanwhile fame augmented the evil, and the death of the ſovereign was believed to have either already taken place, or to be imminent and inevitable.

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The grief and diſtraction which were manifeſted in every part of the iſland, on the publication of this calamitous event, can be only compared with that of the Roman people, on the news of Germanicus being ſeized with mortal ſymptoms at Antioch; as the diſtreſsful ſituation of the queen bore ſome reſemblance to that of Agrippina. "*Paſſim ſilentia et gemitus, nihil compoſitum in oſtentationem; et quanquam neque inſignibus lugentium abſtinerent, altius animis mœrebant.*" Time, however, gradually divulged the truth, and changed the apprehenſions of the nation for the ſituation of the king. His diſorder was underſtood to have fallen upon the brain, and to have produced, as might be expected, a temporary privation of reaſon. As the cauſe of this alienation of mind was extraneous and violent, it might be hoped that it could only be of ſhort duration: but the iſſue was uncertain, while the ſuſpenſion of all government, and of every function attached to the kingly dignity, was immediate and indiſputable. A ſpecies of interregnum, in fact, took place; though unaccompanied by any of thoſe circumſtances which uſually characterize and accompany that unfortunate ſtate. The kingdom, anxious, and with eyes directed towards their ſovereign, betrayed no ſymptons of confuſion, anarchy, or civil commotion. The firſt miniſter continued to exerciſe, by a general ſubmiſſion and conſent, the powers delegated to him before the king's indiſpoſition; and the political machine, well conſtructed and properly organized, ſuſtained no derangement or injury whatſoever from this ſhock, except thoſe inſeparably connected with delay in the tranſactions or negotiations pending with foreign courts.

Meanwhile the heir to the monarchy had quitted Brighthelmſtone on the firſt information of his father's malady, and repaired to Windſor, whither he was followed by the duke of York. Phyſicians were called in, though ineffectually; and as the nature of the diſtemper and of its final termination opened a wide field to conjecture, change and alteration, an expreſs was ſent to overtake Mr. Fox in whatever part of the continent he might be found, and to intreat that he would return without delay to England.

The two houſes of parliament, in conſequence of the preceding prorogation, met in a few days ſubſequent to theſe extraordinary events. The general agitation and curioſity, even if they had not been aided by other emotions of hope and fear, of ambition, and of public duty, would alone have produced a numerous attendance. Mr. Pitt opened the ſubject of their meeting in a very conciſe and pathetic manner; lamented the occaſion, expreſſed his hope that the cauſe would ſpeedily be removed, and, in purſuance of that idea, adviſed an immediate adjournment of a fortnight. The propoſition was received in deep ſilence by the oppoſite ſide of the houſe, and aſſented to in mute acquieſcence. Their leader was not yet arrived, and conſequently time was wanted to adjuſt and determine on their plan of action under circumſtances ſo delicate and unprecedented. In the interval which took place, his majeſty was removed to the palace of Kew. The prince of Wales returned to Carlton Houſe; and Mr. Fox, impatiently expected, after a journey which he performed with incredible expedition from Bologna, in a very infirm and diſordered ſtate of health, arrived in London, and aſſumed his juſt pre-eminence in the councils of his party.

Thoſe councils evinced their nature and object, as ſoon as the late adjourment was at an end; and Mr. Fox generouſly, though perhaps injudiciouſly, ſtepping forward in the ſenate, rather laid claim to the vacant ſceptre, in the name and on the behalf of the heir apparent, as belonging and devolving to him of right, than preferred his pretenſions with modeſty and ſubmiſſion at the bar of the aſſembled nation. Perhaps a ſtep more injurious to the great perſonage whom it was intended to ſerve, or more pregnant with conſequences to be deprecated, of every kind, could not have been deviſed or executed. Perhaps, too, when time ſhall have withdrawn that curtain which is ſtill ſtretched acroſs theſe recent and intereſting events, we may

diſcover, that in advancing ſo unqualified a demand of the regency, he did not preciſely follow the dictates of his own elevated mind and illuminated judgment. It wakened a jealous ſpirit of enquiry into the ſuppoſed origin and foundation of that aſſerted right, in the breaſts even of the moſt liberal and unprejudiced. It compelled adminiſtration to probe that problematical and obſcure part of the Britiſh conſtitution. It reminded thoſe, to whom the writings of Shakeſpear were familiar, of that affecting and pathetic ſcene, where Henry IV. under a temporary privation of his faculties, finds, on his recovery, that his eldeſt ſon has carried away the inſignia of his royal dignity, which, had he only waited a few hours, would have been his by devolution.

The diſcernment of Mr. Pitt ſaw, and inſtantly enabled him to profit of this error in his antagoniſt. He demanded the diſcuſſion and deciſion of ſo great and leading a principle, which led to concluſions unlimited and undefined, as well as ſubverſive of the tenure on which a king of England had originally received his crown, previous to any ulterior diſpoſition and diſtribution of offices. He was joined by the majority of the houſe in this requiſition, and thus commenced his reſiſtance under auſpices and circumſtances peculiarly fortunate. It was in vain that the prince of Wales, already rendered ſenſible of the injury which his cauſe had ſuſtained, equally in parliament and among the people, by Mr. Fox's unqualified claim of right, endeavoured to wave and prevent all diſcuſſion of ſo invidious a ſubject. It was in vain that the duke of York, in his brother's name, and by his authority, renounced any ſuch aſſumption of power, and made this public declaration in the houſe of lords. Nor was Mr. Fox's attempt to qualify his firſt aſſertion, and to give it a more mitigated ſenſe, received with better ſucceſs in the other houſe. Parliament, roufed to a ſenſe of the neceſſity of declaring itſelf ſolely competent to fill the vacant throne, proceeded to that great act without circumlocution or delay; and having pronounced upon this important preliminary, then decided that the prince of Wales ſhould be invited and requeſted to accept the regency, under certain limitations.

The month of December elapſed in theſe conteſts, and the year 1789 commenced under the moſt gloomy preſages. Mutual aſperity and reproach embittered every debate. No appearances of convaleſcence or recovery, ſo ardently anticipated by the nation, had yet manifeſted themſelves in the malady of the king. In addition to the keeneſt ſenſations of private diſtreſs as a mother and a wife, the queen ſaw herſelf on the point of being placed in the moſt painful, though indiſpenſably neceſſary ſituation; that of being entruſted with the care of the royal perſon, and of ſtanding in a ſort of rivality and competition with her eldeſt ſon. The prince, who aſpired to a regency unfettered by any reſtrictions, betrayed, in his reply to a letter which the firſt miniſter addreſſed to him, and in which the great features of that intended delegation of the royal power were delineated, his warm reſentment and diſſatisfaction at many of thoſe defalcations. He concluded, however, by reluctantly and coldly conſenting to receive it, curtailed and degraded as it might be by miniſterial or parliamentary diſtruſt.

A ſecond examination of the phyſicians who had attended his majeſty during the courſe of his diſorder, which took place before a committee of the houſe of commons, and which was certainly not conducted, on the part of oppoſition, with either delicacy or judgment, tended to throw very little light on the great object of public enquiry, the probable duration and period of this afflicting malady. Mr. Pitt conſtantly and warmly maintained the probability of its happy termination; and, regarding it as neither diſtant or hopeleſs, made the reſumption of the royal power by the ſovereign with facility and celerity, as ſoon as he ſhould be enabled to wield the ſceptre, the firſt and leading principle of all his meaſures and propoſitions. The adherents of the prince of Wales ſaw the proſpect of his father's recovery through a very different medium, and conceived of it not only as improbable, but as hourly

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augmenting in that improbability. They were ſuſtained in this opinion by Warren, as the miniſter was confirmed in his oppoſite ſentiment by Willis; two phyſicians, on whoſe contradictory prognoſtics and apprehenſions each party implicitly relied. The former, at the ſummit of his profeſſion, and unqueſtionably poſſeſſed of great medical ſkill, was yet accuſed by the public voice of leaning in his inclination to the party of the prince. The latter brought from a diſtant province to attend the ſovereign under his ſevere diſorder, and having been peculiarly converſant in that ſpecies of diſeaſe, boldly and early aſſerted, that he entertained ſcarcely any doubts of the king's perfect re-eſtabliſhment at no remote period. The event fully juſtified his prediction.

Meanwhile the introduction of the propoſitions upon which the regency-bill was meant to be founded, and the reſtrictions intended to be impoſed upon the power of the future regent, which were brought forward by the firſt miniſter in the houſe of commons, carried the rage and virulence of party to its utmoſt height. The negation of the power of creating peers; the nomination of a council to aſſiſt the queen; and the complete reſervation of the royal houſehold, were all arraigned and condemned in the warmeſt terms by Mr. Fox, as dictated only by ambition, and not originating in ſtate-neceſſity, or even in regard to the ſituation of the monarch. The hiſtory of France, under the unhappy reign of Charles VI. was cited, as bearing a manifeſt reſemblance to the preſent diſaſtrous period; and a queen, equally venerated and beloved by the nation, was compared to the unnatural Iſabella of Bavaria; as her ſon the dauphin's abandoned and perſecuted ſtate was aſſerted to be ſimilar to that of the prince of Wales. Unmoved by theſe invectives, and ſuſtained by conſcious rectitude of intention, the miniſter ſteadily purſued his way: nor was he, in this critical and diſtreſſing moment, deſerted by either houſe of parliament. The chancellor, who at the commencement of the king's illneſs had been ſuppoſed to have liſtened to propoſals for forming a part of a new adminiſtration; anxious to evince the falſehood of ſo unjuſt an aſperſion, and to give the moſt unequivocal proofs of loyalty and of adherence to his ſovereign under the preſent circumſtances, collected all the energy of his mind in various appeals, which he ſucceſsfully made to the honour and patriotiſm of the houſe of lords.

In this ſtage of the public buſineſs, at a moment when the king's ſituation appeared moſt to exclude hope, and while the houſe of commons were fully occupied in framing the principal component parts of the act, which was to eſtabliſh the regency, Mr. Fox withdrew from the ſcene, and, quitting London, retired to Bath. His diſordered ſtate of health was aſſigned as a pretext for this acceſſion at ſo extraordinary and critical a juncture; but the public conceived the motives of it to originate in very different cauſes. Diſſention and jealouſy had already pervaded the counſels of Carlton houſe. The diſtribution of offices under the approaching regency had produced alienation among the chiefs. An interior cabinet, different in its views, and oppoſite in its objects to the great oſtenſible leaders of the party attached to the prince of Wales, had ſet up a ſeparate ſtandard, and formed a diſtinct intereſt. Difference of opinion had manifeſted itſelf upon ſome very delicate and perſonal points. Cabal and intrigue had penetrated into the cloſet. His royal highneſs was generally ſuppoſed to have experienced difficulties, if not peremptory refuſals of gratifying his wiſhes, on the part of the duke of Portland; and that, in relation to perſons and things peculiarly near his heart. Theſe numerous ſources of diſunion were ſtill, however, in ſome meaſure concealed from view, by their very nature, and the mutual intereſt or honour of the parties themſelves.

The great acts of parliamentary legiſlation proceeded, and were nearly approaching to their termination. A very ſhort period, probably not exceeding three days, muſt have completed the bill, which was to declare the incapacity of the ſovereign to conduct the national affairs, and to transfer the ſceptre, though with diminiſhed

influence, to his ſon. The members of adminiſtration were on the point of reſigning their charges, and the new miniſtry, already ſettled, prepared to enter on office: while the Engliſh people, fondly attached by every ſenſe of loyalty and affection to their monarch, as well as from gratitude and eſteem to the firſt miniſter, in dejection and ſilence looked on, and ſaw the government transferred to others, who, whatever abilities they might collectively poſſeſs, certainly neither merited nor enjoyed the general approbation and confidence.

But the term of inter-regnum and misfortune was now arrived; and the impending calamity which had menaced England with all the evils of a regency, far more to be deprecated and dreaded than thoſe from which the country had eſcaped in 1784, was ſuddenly and unexpectedly diſſipated. The diſorder, under which the king had ſuffered during three months, and whoſe violence had hitherto appeared to baffle all medical ſkill and exertion, gradually, but rapidly, ſubſided. Sanity of mind and reaſon reſumed their ſeat, and left no trace of their temporary ſubverſion. Time confirmed the cure, and reſtored to his ſubjects a prince, rendered ſupremely and peculiarly dear to them by the recent proſpect and apprehenſion of his loſs. The viſion of a regency faded and diſappeared, as the ſovereign came forward to public view, and was totally extinguiſhed by his reſumption of all the regal functions. The demonſtrations of national joy far exceeded any recorded in the Engliſh annals, and were probably more real and unfeigned than ever were offered on ſimilar occaſions. It was not only that a king, beloved and reſpected, was recovered from the moſt afflicting of all ſituations incident to humanity, and enabled to re-aſcend the throne. Sentiments of diſapprobation and of general condemnation, affixed to the meaſures and conduct of the oppoſite party, heightened the emotions of pleaſure, by a compariſon with that ſtate from which the kingdom had been ſo fortunately delivered. No efforts of deſpotiſm, or mandates of arbitrary power could have produced the illuminations which not only the capital but almoſt every town and village throughout the kingdom, exhibited in teſtimony of its loyalty; and theſe proofs of attachment were renewed, and even augmented, on the occaſion of his majeſty's firſt appearance in public, and his ſolemn proceſſion to St. Paul's (on the 23d of April 1789), to return thanks to Heaven for his recovery. Serenity and tranquillity, ſo long baniſhed, reſumed their place, and ſoon effaced the recollection of a calamity not more awful and alarming in its appearance and progreſs, than ſpeedily and happily extinguiſhed.

Whilſt the ancient government of France was intirely overthrown, and a revolution the moſt unexpected was effected by a nation of brave ſpirits ſtruggling for their liberty, it is difficult to imagine a picture of more complete ſerenity than England preſented; and this internal repoſe was accompanied with every circumſtance of external proſperity, and augmenting national conſideration. The year which immediately ſucceeded the malady of George the Third may be ranked among the happieſt of his reign, whether it be conſidered as perſonally affecting himſelf, or as productive of felicity to his people. The recent danger from which he had eſcaped, rendered his health and ſafety peculiarly precious to his ſubjects; as the animated expreſſions of their attachment and loyalty muſt have deeply touched the heart of a prince, infinitely ſenſible to theſe genuine marks of affection. The character of the ſovereign was not more formed to produce, than that of his adminiſtration was to perpetuate the general tranquillity. The conduct of Mr. Pitt, during the whole progreſs of the late commotions in France, may be held up as a model of political honour and rectitude; perhaps equally ſo of wiſdom. Unlike to Richlieu, who fomented the cauſes of diſcord between Charles the Firſt and his parliament; unlike to Vergennes, who ſtimulated the Americans to reſiſtance; and after a ſeries of indirect and inſidious arts, violated the moſt ſolemn treaties, in order to inſure

their

their final independence; the Engliſh miniſter ſteadily and ſyſtematically adhered to the moſt exact neutrality.

The period which is comprized between the months of May 1789 and 1790, like the reign of Antoninus Pius, affords few materials for hiſtory, drawn from the interior events of the time. England, at peace with all the world, in the boſom of repoſe, ſaw her commerce and manufactures extend, her credit augment, and her name excite reſpect among the moſt diſtant nations; while many of the great ſurrounding European kingdoms were either involved in foreign war, or deſolated by domeſtic troubles. This tranquillity was not however allied to an ignominious and enervate ſloth; but, on the contrary, was ſecured by vigilance, activity, and exertion. In conjunction with Pruſſia and Holland, Great Britain indirectly extended her attention and ſuccour to Guſtavus the Third, ſinking under an unequal conteſt with the vaſt empire of Ruſſia. She reſtrained and arreſted Denmark, even after that power, as an auxiliary of the court of Peterſburgh, had already taken up arms, and committed hoſtilities againſt Sweden. She ſignified to Leopold, who had recently ſucceeded to the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, her deſire that he would recall his troops from the banks of the Danube; and ſhe ſuſtained by her negociations the firmneſs of the Ottoman counſels, while ſhe ſilently, but not leſs decidedly, impoſed limits on the ambition of their great enemy Catherine the Second, by prohibiting her fleet from preſuming to quit the Baltic, and to complete the deſtruction of the Turks in the Archipelago.

In this happy ſituation, a ſtorm unexpectedly and ſuddenly aroſe from a quarter, where, it would ſeem, that no foreſight or precautions could have anticipated the danger. Among the new and unexplored paths of commerce, which the ſpirit of a diſcerning and adventurous people had attempted to open ſince the peace of 1783, were particularly two, which appeared to promiſe the moſt beneficial returns. The firſt was a whale-fiſhery, ſimilar to that which had been carried on for ages near the coaſts of Greenland; but transferred to the ſouthern hemiſphere, near the extremity of Patagonia, and in the ſtormy ſeas which ſurround Cape Horn; as well as in the Pacific Ocean. In the courſe of a few years, this branch of trade had augmented rapidly, and was found on trial to afford very important advantages; nor had it received any impediments from the vague pretenſions of the Spaniſh crown to the ſovereignty of the ſhores waſhed by that ocean, which was the ſcene of their exertions.

The ſecond of theſe enterprizes, original in its own nature, able in its conception, bold in its execution, and having no precedent for its guidance, was directed to counties and to objects almoſt as much unknown to geographical, as to commercial knowledge or experience. It demanded many qualities rarely and difficultly combined: a conſiderable capital; miniſterial approbation; faithful and capable conductors; dextrous navigators, and above all, much time and perſeverance to ripen, and ultimately recompence the perſons engaging in ſo eccentric and expenſive an expedition. This extraordinary union of talents and circumſtances was, however, found in men of no ſuperior deſcription among the mercantile inhabitants of London; and it will remain a ſtriking monument to future ages, of the energy, capacity, and nautical ability, which diſtinguiſh the preſent century and the Britiſh nation, above the moſt enlightened periods of any ancient or modern people.

The north weſt coaſt of America, the part of the earth to which this embarkation was deſtined, was not only ſo remote, but ſo undefined, that its very exiſtence remained unknown or doubtful, before the diſcoveries of the reign of George the Third. This immenſe tract of land, extending northward from California and New Albion to the Frozen ſea, had been partly explored and faintly traced by capt. Cook; but much remained for future enterprize and induſtry to accompliſh, before this diſcovery could be converted to any purpoſe of public utility. He had, however,

aſcertained the exiſtence of the continent; and he had received from the barbarous natives, with whom he eſtabliſhed a ſpecies of barter, ſome valuable ſpecimens of furs, in exchange for European commodities of a far inferior nature.

The hope of procuring a conſiderable quantity of theſe rare and coſtly ſkins, for the ſale of which a very advantageous market preſented itſelf at Canton in China, was the leading inducement to the adventurers, who engaged in the expedition. But, in the purſuit of private emolument, objects of general and national conſequence were neceſſarily implicated and interwoven. Behind this coaſt to the eaſtward, lay the vaſt continent of America; opening a field to commercial activity and reſearch, in which the imagination itſelf was loſt. The diſcovery of a communication through this unexplored country, and which may ultimately connect it, to a certain degree, with our ſettlements in Hudſon's Bay, appears from their account, not to be totally viſionary, though it was regarded as ſuch by our juſtly celebrated but unfortunate countryman.

Animated by theſe views, and having received the moſt affirmative marks of the protection of government previous to their departure, five ſhips were fitted out from London in 1785, and the two ſucceeding years. Four of theſe veſſels, after doubling Cape Horn, arrived ſafely on the north-weſt coaſt of America. The ſanguine expectations which had been entertained of effecting a lucrative exchange of commodities with the natives, were fully and ſpeedily realized. Cargoes of the fineſt furs were procured, and ſold to the Chineſe, even under great commercial diſcouragements, and pecuniary impoſitions, at ſo high a price, as amply to reimburſe, and enrich the adventurers. Other attempts of a ſimilar nature, were made from Bengal; and two veſſels were ſucceſſively diſpatched from the Ganges to the ſame coaſt in the year 1786. A factory was eſtabliſhed at Nootka Sound, a port ſituated in the fiftieth degree of northern latitude, on the ſhore of America. Poſſeſſion of it was ſolemnly taken in the name of the ſovereign and crown of England: amicable treaties were concluded with the chiefs of the neighbouring diſtricts; and a tract of land was purchaſed from one of them, on which the new proprietors proceeded to form a ſettlement, and to conſtruct ſtorehouſes. Every thing bore the appearance of a riſing colony, and each year opened new ſources of commerce and advantage.

Although individuals, occupied in exertions of this private nature, could not be expected to extend their views or efforts to objects of public utility, yet ſome further information was collaterally and incidentally required reſpecting the continent of America, in the courſe of their voyages. It is even pretended that a ſloop named the "Waſhington," navigated for ſome hundred miles along a vaſt number of iſlands, ſcattered in a ſea, which interſects that continent in a north-eaſt direction, and though the accounts hitherto received or tranſmitted, of this extraordinary and intereſting fact, are not either ſo minute, or ſo accurate, as by any means to entitle them to be implicitly received, yet they appear to be not totally deſtitute of foundation or probability. Every proſpect either of national advantage, and of private emolument, which the commerce of theſe coaſts ſeemed to promiſe to Great Britain, was, however, deſtined to experience a ſudden and unexpected ſuſpenſion.

That, upon every principle of the law of nations, upon the eſtabliſhed uſage in all ſimilar caſes, and as being *the firſt ſettlers*, the Britiſh adventurers had an undoubted title to the place in queſtion, is beyond diſpute. Notwithſtanding this in the month of May 1789, a Spaniſh ſhip of war from St. Blas, called the Princeſſa, commanded by M. Martinez, and mounting 20 guns, anchored there. The various avocations of trade having led the greater part of the perſons employed at this ſettlement to different parts of the coaſt, the only Engliſh trading ſhip remaining in the ſound was the Iphigenia. The Princeſſa was ſoon joined by a Spaniſh ſnow of 16 guns; and, for ſome time mutual civilities paſſed between the Spaniards and Engliſh.

Engliſh. Theſe, however, were at length interrupted, by an order being ſent to capt. Douglas (the commander of the Iphigenia) to come on board of the Princeſſa; when he was informed by M. Martinez, that he had the king of Spain's orders to ſeize all veſſels which he might find upon that coaſt, and that he (capt. Douglas) was his priſoner. In conſequence of this M. Martinez took poſſeſſion of the Iphigenia in the name of his catholic majeſty, and conveyed the crew priſoners on board the Spaniſh ſhips, where they were ironed. M. Martinez alſo took poſſeſſion of the ſettlement, hoiſted the Spaniſh flag, and proceeded to erect various buildings, on which he employed, together with his own men, ſome of the crew of the Iphigenia. He afterwards permitted captain Douglas to reſume the command of his ſhip; and on his repreſenting, that he had been ſtript of his merchandize, and other ſtores, M. Martinez gave him a ſmall ſupply of ſtores and proviſions (for which he took bills on the owners) by means of which, about a fortnight after he was at firſt detained, he was enabled to proceed to China.

Shortly afterwards, the Engliſh veſſels, the North-weſt America, the Argonaut, and the Princeſs Royal, arriving ſeparately at Nootka, from their trading voyages, were captured by M. Martinez, their crews were made priſoners, and their cargoes ſeized. After ſome detention the crew of the North-weſt America were ſent to China, the two other veſſels with their crews were ſent to St. Blas in Mexico, and ſome Chineſe, who had been brought to the ſettlement by our people, were detained and employed as labourers.

Of the North-weſt America, ſent to China, no authentic account has been received; but on the arrival of the two veſſels at St. Blas, a repreſentation of their caſe having been made to the Spaniſh governor, the ſhips were reſtored (on the officers giving ſecurity to indemnify the governor, ſhould it be proved they were lawful prizes) the crews were furniſhed with proviſions, ſtores, and money, to enable them to reſume their voyage.

Of theſe tranſactions only a partial, vague, and uncircumſtantial account was known by his majeſty's miniſters till the 30th of April 1790, when captain Meares preſented his memorial to Mr. Grenville. This paper indeed conveyed an intelligence of a very different nature from that which had been previouſly received. Within one week after the affair was communicated, the moſt active and formidable preparations were made, a poſitive demand of preliminary ſatisfaction and reſtitution was ſent to Madrid, and the people of England were called upon to adopt the national vindication. The firſt communication of this buſineſs to the public was by his majeſty's meſſage to parliament on the 5th of May; in which two objects, in their natures perfectly diſtinct, were brought forward; *the firſt*, a ſatisfaction for the national inſult, and for the individual injury which was declared to be a *ſine qua non*, and to be antecedent to any other diſcuſſion. *The ſecond*, an inveſtigation of the reſpective claims and demands of the two countries, by which their ſeveral intereſts might be aſcertained, and all occaſion of diſpute in future removed. This was the language of the king's meſſage; and it was afterwards the language of Mr. Pitt, in moving the addreſs to his majeſty, as well as in his reply to Mr. Fox in the houſe of commons.

With regard to the firſt of theſe objects, a partial ſatisfaction, as it appears, had been given on the ſubject of the cruelties exerciſed upon the ſailors. Theſe the court of Spain diſavowed, and actually ordered M. Martinez, who had perpetrated them, to be arreſted and tried for his miſconduct, immediately on the firſt intelligence arriving at Madrid, and before any repreſentation was made on the ſubject by our court. The remaining ſubjects of diſcuſſion, immediately ariſing from the tranſactions at Nootka, were, therefore, the ſeizure of the ſettlement, and of the veſſels and property. An attention to the honour of their country made it, therefore, neceſſary for our miniſters, to call upon the court of Spain itſelf to give direct ſatisfaction

faction for an injury committed by an officer acting under its immediate commiſſion, and grounded on its pretenſion of an excluſive right to the whole continent of America. To do this it was neceſſary for his catholic majeſty to acknowledge that *ſuch an injury* had been committed, and this was moſt expreſly declared and ſigned by count de Florida Blanca, in the name and by the order of his Catholic majeſty, at Madrid the 24th July, 1790. The acknowledgement of the injury was an expreſſion which implied a conceſſion that the court of Spain had no right to uſe force in preventing Britiſh ſubjects from viſiting the coaſts in queſtion for the purpoſes of trade and ſettlement.

The public were waiting with painful anxiety for the determination of the objects of the depending negotiation; deprecating indeed the dreadful alternative of appealing to the ſword for the vindication of our rights; yet ſatisfied of the juſtice of our cauſe, and confidently looking forward to an honourable and happy termination of a conteſt, originating in the violent proceedings, and unfounded claims of the court of Spain, when the agreeable news arrived that a convention was agreed upon between his Britannic majeſty and the king of Spain, and ſigned at the Eſcurial the 28th of October, 1790, by their plenipotentiaries Alleyne Fitzherbert, eſq. on the part of his Britannic majeſty, and by count de Florida Blanca on that of his Catholic majeſty; which was finally ratified by the court of Spain, and exchanged with Mr. Fitzherbert againſt his majeſty's ratification on the 22d of November, 1790, at the palace of the Eſcurial, by his catholic majeſty's miniſter.

That Great Britain by this convention obtained points and objects, hitherto refuſed by the court of Madrid, in every treaty ſince the termination of the reign of Philip IV. is inconteſtible. Time alone can completely aſcertain the value and intrinſic worth of theſe conceſſions, which are, in a great degree, dependent on the induſtry and enterprize exerted, in converting them to national advantage. That jealous and tenacious power, which originally diſcovered and conquered the New World, over which ſhe has always endeavoured to draw the deepeſt veil, while ſhe excluded every European ſtate from any participation in her vaſt acquiſitions, has, for the firſt time, receded from her high and excluſive pretenſions. The pretended donation of the ſee of Rome, and all the antiquated claims which long preſcription had rendered venerable, have been for ever relinquiſhed and abandoned by the preſent convention. The navigation of the Pacific Ocean is, in effect, declared to be as free as that of the Atlantic. The right, claimed by England, of purſuing the fiſhery on thoſe parts of the coaſt of South America, unoccupied and uncolonized by Spain, is not only avowed, but a vaſt tract of the Magellanic regions, on either ſide of Cape Horn, compriſing the whole coaſt below the moſt ſouthern ſettlement already made by the Spaniards, is declared to be free to both countries, for every purpoſe of temporary accommodation: while the two crowns are equally interdicted and reſtrained from forming future permanent eſtabliſhments on that inhoſpitable ſhore. In return for this liberal and ample conceſſion, England ſubmits to the equitable demand, of not permitting her veſſels to approach within ten leagues of the coaſts and countries actually occupied by Spain upon the Pacific Ocean.

On the the north-weſt coaſt of America, the original diſcovery, occupancy, and ſovereignty of which, appear to furniſh matter of infinite doubt and diſcuſſion, ſtill greater advantages are ſecured by the convention. Not only clear and immediate ſatisfaction is ſtipulated as to the primary ground of diſpute; but the whole continent, north of the ſettlements already poſſeſſed by Spain, is left open to both nations; with only a reciprocal right of entry for purpoſes of trade, into the ports or places which either may occupy.

The ſame general and equal principle is laid down as the baſis of accommodation, in the ſouthern and northern hemiſphere, and forms the predominant feature of the treaty.

treaty. It was not denied by the miniſter, and it was juſtly aſſerted by his opponents, when the convention was agitated in the houſe of commons, that to render it perfect, and exempt from future poſſible miſinterpretation, a preciſe limit ſhould have been drawn, both on the coaſt of North and South America. But the evils, inſeparable from a prolongation of the diſpute, muſt have ſo greatly outweighed the benefit to be derived from any line of demarcation which could have been inſtantly ſettled, that no poſſible cenſure can be affixed on that account; ſince its expediency was not more obvious, than its immediate execution was difficult and impracticable. Nor can it be reaſonably doubted that where ſo clear a principle is by mutual conſent eſtabliſhed, no eſſential obſtacle can ariſe, in the courſe of future negociations between the two courts, for the final ſettlement of [illegible] boundaries.

To complete this great act of public benefit and national glory, it only remained to meet the expence occaſioned by it with promptitude and alacrity. The miniſter, ſo far from avoiding or protracting that neceſſary, but painful and arduous taſk, followed the convention, with the immediate production of accounts reſpecting the naval and military armaments, and the pecuniary impoſitions which he meant to propoſe for their ſpeedy liquidation. He propoſed to raiſe, not merely the intereſt of the debt recently incurred; but to extinguiſh the principal itſelf, in the ſpace of four years; though amounting to above three millions ſterling. The effect of ſo judicious and provident a meaſure, which muſt evince the reſources of the country which adopted it, will be felt through every kingdom of Europe.

Genealogical List of the Royal Family of Great Britain.

George William Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, September 8, 1761, to the princeſs Sophia Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have iſſue:

1. George Auguſtus Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12, 1762.
2. Prince Frederic, born Auguſt 16, 1763, elected biſhop of Oſnaburgh, February 27, 1764, created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784.
3. Prince William Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765, created duke of Clarence.
4. Princeſs Charlotte, born September 29, 1766.
5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.
6. Princeſs Auguſta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.
7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.
8. Prince Erneſt Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771.
9. Prince Frederic Auguſtus, born January 27, 1773.
10. Prince Adolphus Frederic, born February 24, 1774.
11. Princeſs Mary, born April 25, 1776.
12. Princeſs Sophia, born November 3, 1777.
13. Princeſs Amelia, born Auguſt 7, 1783.

Iſſue of the late prince of Wales by the princeſs Auguſta of Saxe Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highneſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737; married the hereditary prince of Brunſwick Lunenburg, January 16, 1764.
2. His preſent majeſty.
3. Prince William Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born November 25, 1743.

WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has diſtinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with the common cuſtom, aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

Extent and Situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.	
Length	130	between	51 and 54	North latitude.
Breadth	96		2.41 and 4.56	Weſt longitude.

Area in ſquare miles 7011.

Name and language.] The Welch, according to the beſt antiquaries, are deſcendents of the Belgic Gauls, who made a ſettlement in England about fourſcore years before the firſt deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiſcuouſly uſed by the ancient Britons), that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a ſtrong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and deſcriptive powers.

Boundaries.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at preſent, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themſelves maſters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were obliged gradually to retreat weſtward. It does not however appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conqueſts in their country than Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire, which formerly belonged to Wales, but now form part of England. This country is divided into four circuits, comprehending twelve counties. See England.

Climate, soil, and water.] The ſeaſons are pretty much the ſame as in the northern parts of England, and the air is ſharp, but wholeſome. The ſoil of Wales, eſpecially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-ſtone and ſlate, ſeveral mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well ſupplied with wholeſome ſprings; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Allen, which furniſh Flintſhire with great quantities of fiſh.

Mountains.] It would be endleſs to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganſhire, are the moſt famous; and their mountainous ſituation greatly aſſiſted the natives in making ſo noble and long a ſtruggle againſt the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

Vegetable and animal productions by sea and land.] In theſe particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horſes are ſmaller, but can endure vaſt fatigue, and their black cattle are ſmall likewiſe, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. Some very promiſing mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron, have been diſcovered in Wales. The Welch ſilver may be known by its being ſtamped with the oſtrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

Population, inhabitants, manners, and customs.] The inhabitants of Wales are ſuppoſed to amount to about 300,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the neceſſaries, and many of the conveniences

veniences of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in ſome years ago about forty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if poſſible, more jealous of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible, but their anger ſoon abates; and they are remarkable for their ſincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity, but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coëval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more ancient, and better atteſted, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who lived about the year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince, that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch the deſcendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independency, for which reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacre of the bards. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hoſpitality, and their ſtrict adherence to ancient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtream of faſhion. We are not, however, to imagine that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpeak the Engliſh language, though numbers of them underſtand the Welch.

RELIGION.] I have already mentioned the maſſacre of the Welch clergy by Auguſtine the popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would not conform to the Romiſh ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their favour, by their pretended power of abſolving from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a vaſt diſcouragement to religion and learning, but the meaſures taken by the ſociety for propagating Chriſtian knowledge has in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two ſchoolmaſters were employed, to remove from place to place for the inſtruction of the inhabitants; and their ſcholars amounted to 72,264. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vaſt expence Bibles, Common Prayers, and other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis to the poorer ſort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-ſchool.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Wales is that of the church of England; but the common people in many places are ſo tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms, that they retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome ancient families among them are ſtill Roman Catholics. It is likewiſe ſaid, that Wales abounds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe. And it is certain, that the principality contains great numbers of Proteſtant Diſſenters.

For BISHOPRICKS. (See England). We are to obſerve, that in the former times, Wales contained more biſhoprics than it does now; and about the time of the Norman invaſion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a ſeat of learning at a very early period; but it ſuffered an eclipſe by the repeated maſſacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales when it was perſecuted in England. The

Welch and Scotch diſpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men of the ſame country, who flouriſhed before the Reformation. The diſcovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying-place was owing to ſome lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman Catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewiſe a Welchman; as was that great ſtateſman and prelate, the lord keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, it appears, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwithſtanding all that Dr. Hicks, and other antiquaries, have ſaid to the contrary, furniſhed the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua.) Another inſtance of Welch erudition we have in the excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With regard to the preſent ſtate of literature among the Welch, it is ſufficient to ſay, that ſome of them make a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent ſcholars. The Welch Paternoſter is as follows:

Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, ſanctteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro in i heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn eos eoſoedd. Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Angleſey *, and has a good harbour. Brecknock trades in cloathing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and aldermen, who wear ſcarlet gowns, and other enſigns of ſtate. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradeſmen; and part of the country is ſo fertile and pleaſant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales, have nothing particular. It is proper, however, to obſerve that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at preſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and ſo well ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts at a ſmall expence: witneſs the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its caſtles are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome the remains of Roman architecture are plainly diſcernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and ſome appear to be partly Britiſh, and partly Roman. In Brecknockſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet high,

* The Iſle of Angleſey, whcih is the moſt weſtern county of North Wales, is furrounded on all ſides by the Iriſh ſea, except on the ſouth-eaſt, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow ſtrait, called Meneu, which in ſome places may be paſſed on foot at low water; the iſland is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 74 pariſhes. It was the ancient ſeat of the Britiſh Druids.

called

called the Maiden-Stone; but the remains of the Druidical inſtitutions, and places of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the iſle of Angleſey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as being the chief ſeminary of the Druidical rites and religion. To give a deſcription of the Roman altars, antiquities, and utenſils, which have been diſcovered in Wales, would be endleſs, but future antiquaries may make great diſcoveries from them. Among the other artificial curioſities, is king Offa's dyke, which is ſaid to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-caſtle in Glamorganſhire, is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Great Britain, excepting Windſor; and the remains of it ſhew it to have been a moſt beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other over-hangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Near the town of Flint are the remains of a large caſtle, in which Richard II. was confined, ſome time before his depoſition; and a variety of Roman antiquities have been found in this town, which is ſuppoſed to have been a Roman ſtation.

Some coins of Welch princes are ſaid to be found in the cabinets of the curious; but it does not ſeem that they have been ſerviceable in aſcertaining the ancient hiſtory of the country.

Among the natural curioſities of this country, are the following. At a ſmall village called Newton, in Glamorganſhire, is a remarkable ſpring nigh the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the ſea. In Merionethſhire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintſhire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The ſpring boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch ſupported by pillars, and the roof is moſt exquiſitely carved in ſtone. Over the ſpring is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous ſtate. King James II. paid a viſit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a preſent of the ſhift in which his great-grandmother, Mary Stuart, loſt her head. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt in the Britiſh dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to fling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, and varies but little in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greateſt rains; but in conſequence of the latter is diſcoloured by a wheyiſh tinge. The ſmall town adjoining to the well, is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to travellers; from one hand the impending rock ſeems ready every minute to cruſh them to pieces, and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and till very lately, when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road, ſo full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular meaſurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great many pleaſing proſpects and pictureſque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch are on a footing, as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the weſtern and northern counties of England. Their trade is moſtly inland, or with England, into which they ſend numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late conſiderable ſums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. The making it the principal harbour of the kingdom would meet with ſtrong oppoſition from the numerous Corniſh and Weſt-country members, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly leſſened by the diſuſe of Plymouth and Portſ-

mouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England and Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there were ordained four ſeveral circuits for the adminiſtration of juſtice in the ſaid ſhires, each of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the chief juſtice of Cheſter has under his juriſdiction the three ſeveral ſhires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery, The ſhires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Angleſey, are under the juſtices of North Wales. Thoſe of Caermarthen, Pembrokeſhire, and Cardigan, have alſo their juſtices; as have likewiſe thoſe of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other juſtice-aſſiſtant was ordained to the former juſtices; ſo that now every one of the ſaid four circuits has two juſtices, viz. one chief-juſtice, and a ſecond juſtice aſſiſtant.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, I have already mentioned the land-tax; and the crown has a certain though ſmall property, in the product of the ſilver and lead-mines; but it is ſaid that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality does not exceed 7 or 8000l. a year.

ARMS. The arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is *Ich dien*, I ſerve. St. David, commonly called St. Taffy, is the tutelar ſaint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1ſt of March.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were ſovereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh hiſtory. It was formerly inhabited by the three different tribes of Britons; the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. Theſe people made ſuch violent oppoſition to the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely ſubdued; though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. Though the Saxons, as hath been already obſerved, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons; and the names of theſe diviſions were, Demetia, or South Wales; Poveſia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This diviſion gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppoſe them. They made, however, many brave attempts to maintain their liberties againſt the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a handle for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Griffyn, having put himſelf under ſubjection and homage to king Henry III.

But

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an army at great expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay tribute. The Welch, however, made ſeveral efforts under young Llewellin: but, at laſt, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time probably that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon caſtle, that the Welch having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales ever ſince deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England became thenceforth the ſame. It is proper, however, to obſerve, that the kings of England have always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a preſident, was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of all the affairs of the principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

ISLE OF MAN.

THE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was not in this iſland but the iſle of Angleſea. Some think that Man takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), becauſe lying in St. George's Channel, it is almoſt at an equal diſtance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland. Its length from north to ſouth is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is fifty-four degrees ſixteen minutes north. It is ſaid, that on a clear day the three Britannic kingdoms may be ſeen from this iſland. The air here is wholeſome, and the climate, only making allowance for the ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other reſpects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulſe. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the iſland, of which Snafield is the higheſt, riſing 1640 feet above the level of the ſea, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants have good ſizeable horſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound with ſea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almoſt a lump of fat, and eſtemed very delicious. It is ſaid, that this iſland abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

The Iſle of Man contains ſeventeen pariſhes and four towns on the ſea-coaſts. Caſtle-town is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of its government; Peele, of late years begins to flouriſh; Douglas has the beſt market and beſt trade

in

in the iſland, and is the richeſt and moſt populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the ſea; Ramſey has likewiſe a conſiderable commerce on account of its ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds except the north-eaſt. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how conveniently this iſland is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers, which it was till within theſe few years, to the inexpreſſible prejudice of his majeſty's revenue; and this neceſſarily leads us to touch upon the hiſtory of the iſland.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas, who have been before mentioned, this iſland was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a ſpirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen, or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſland; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Eward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland, and beſtowed it on his favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family-honours and eſtate being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhoprick, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon ſir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the crown of Great Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms and the iſland from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants alſo retain many of their ancient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers; his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony. One of the moſt excellent prelates who ever adorned the epiſcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilſon, biſhop of Man, who preſided over that dioceſe upwards of fifty-ſeven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed for the piety and exemplarineſs of his life, his benevolence and hoſpitality, and his unremitting attention to the happineſs of the people entruſted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, eſtabliſhed ſchools for the inſtruction of the children of the inhabitants of the iſland, tranſlated ſome of his devotional pieces into the Mank language, to render them more generally uſeful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every pariſh of his dioceſe. Some of his notions reſpecting government and church diſcipline were not of the moſt liberal kind: but his failings were ſo few, and his virtues ſo numerous and conſpicuous, that he was a great bleſſing to the Iſle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had ſo much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation ſhould ravage the Iſle of Man.

The eccleſiaſtical government is well maintained in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages.

The New Teſtament and Common Prayer Book have been tranſlated into the Mank language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The better ſort live in ſtone houſes, covered with ſlate, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they may have occaſion for from other parts. Before the ſouth promontory of Man, is a little iſland called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiquary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments, of ancient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, adorned with pure gold, which indicates the ſplendor of its ancient poſſeſſors.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS iſland is oppoſite to the coaſt of Hampſhire, from which it is ſeparated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to ſeven miles: it is conſidered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. Its greateſt length, extending from eaſt to weſt, meaſures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to ſouth about thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the ſouthern parts; the ſoil is various, but ſo great is its fertility, that more wheat grows here in one year, than can be conſumed by the inhabitans in eight: and it is ſuppoſed that its preſent produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increaſe of population. A range of hills, which affords fine paſture for ſheep, extends from eaſt to weſt, through the middle of the iſland. The interior parts of the iſland, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and pictureſque proſpects, not only in the paſtoral, but alſo in the great and romantic ſtyle. Of theſe beauties, the gentlemen of the iſland have availed themſelves, as well in the choice of ſituation of their houſes, as in their other improvements. Domeſtic fouls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ſhips and veſſels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furniſhing themſelves from this iſland.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the beauty and variety of the landſcapes of this iſland, that it has been called the garden of England; it has ſome very fine gentlemen's ſeats; and it is often viſited by parties of pleaſure on account of its delightful ſcenes.

The iſland is divided into thirty pariſhes: and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thouſand and twenty-four, excluſive of the troops quartered there. Moſt of the farm-houſes are built with ſtone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland, of which it may be conſidered as the capital. The river Medina empties itſelf into the channel at Cowes harbour, diſtant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, is very commodious for trade. The three principal ſtreets of Newport extend from

eaſt

eaſt to weſt, and are croſſed at right angles by three others, all which are ſpacious, clean, and well paved.

Cariſbrooke caſtle, in the Iſle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a priſoner from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this caſtle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, died in it. There are ſeveral other forts in this iſland, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouſes were built in different parts of the coaſts of England.

THE ISLANDS OF JERSEY, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, SARK, LUNDY, &c.

IN the Engliſh channel four of theſe are ſituated, and are ſubject to England: theſe are Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark: which though much nearer to the coaſt of Normandy than to that of England, are within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Britany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernſey, ſeven leagues; and between the ſame and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans; and lies fartheſt within the bay, in forty-nine degrees ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, eighteen miles weſt of Normandy, and eighty-four miles ſouth of Portland. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs, the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine: and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild-fowls almoſt of every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve pariſhes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houſes, has a good harbour and caſtle, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recogniſe him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words; yet French is moſt generally the language of the pulpit and the bar. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity; but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil adminiſtration reſts with a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates,

which forms a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and a half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; has only ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters: four of the pariſhes are united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernſey, having one a-piece. Though this is naturally a finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable, being poorly cultivated and thinly inhabited. It abounds in cyder; the inhabitants ſpeak French: want of firing is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter la Port, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old-Caſtle, and the other Caſtle Cornet. Guernſey is likewiſe part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. To the weſt lie a range of rocks for near three leagues together, called the Caſkets; among which are ſeveral whirlpools or eddies, very dreadful to mariners. The ſons of king Henry I. were caſt away and drowned here, paſſing to Normandy; and it is freſh in memory how fatal this ſtrait proved to the Victory man of war, commanded by admiral Blachen. This iſland is healthy, and the ſoil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey; the inhabitants are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniences of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three laſt-mentioned iſlands together are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four iſlands is that of the church of England.

SCILLY ISLANDS and ROCKS, anciently called the SILURES, are a cluſter of dangerous rocks to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part, and to which they are ſuppoſed to have been formerly joined, but ſeparated from it and from each other, by ſome violent eruption of the ſea, which is here between 40 and 60 fathoms deep. *Scilly*, which gives name to all the reſt, was once the chief; but St. Mary's Iſland, though only nine miles in circumference, is the largeſt, as well as the moſt fruitful, and has a very good harbour, fortified with a caſtle, which was built by queen Elizabeth. St. Mary's contains more inhabitants than all the reſt put together, and who are alſo the richeſt. In this, and in two or three others of the largeſt iſlands, there are various antiquities, particularly the remains of a temple of the Druids, and ancient ſepulchres. But the greateſt ornament of this iſland is the light-houſe, in height 51 feet, and the gallery four. The ſaſh lights eleven feet 3 inches high, by 3 feet 2 inches broad; it ſtands on high land, and makes a very fine appearance. By their ſituation, between the Engliſh Channel and St. George's Channel, they have been the deſtruction of many ſhips and lives, eſpecially in the night time, having miſtaken their reckonings, and been here daſhed to pieces. This was the fate of the brave ſir Cloudeſley Shovel's ſquadron, 22d October 1707, as it was returning home from Toulon.

LUNDY ISLAND, though 50 miles in the ſea, off the north-weſt coaſt of Devonſhire, has ſprings of freſh water. It is five miles long, and two broad, but ſo encompaſſed with inacceſſible rocks, that it has but one entrance to it, ſo narrow that two men can ſcarely go abreaſt: it had once a fort and chapel. On the north part is a high pyramidical rock, called the Conſtable. Here are horſes, kine, hogs, and goats, with great ſtore of ſheep and rabbits; but their chief commodity is fowl with which they abound. In the reign of Henry VIII. one William Moriſco, who

had conſpired to murder him at Woodſtock, fled to this iſland which he fortified, turned pirate, and did much damage to this coaſt, till he was taken by ſurpriſe at length, with 16 of his accomplices, and put to death.

HOLY ISLAND is ſituated ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Berwick upon Tweed; is called by the monks, who lived in it retired from the world, by the name of Landisfern, by reaſon of its ſituation over againſt the river Landis. It was anciently a biſhop's ſee, and had 22 biſhops ſucceſſively. It has plenty of fiſh and fowl, but the air and ſoil are bad. It is three miles in compaſs, and has a town, a church, and caſtle, under which is a commodious harbour. It is encompaſſed with water, at every flood, but ſand at ebb. It lies not above a mile and a half from the land; from whence, at low water, people ride over to it.

IRELAND.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth climate, where the longeſt day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th clime, where the longeſt day is 17½ hours.

The extent or ſuperficial content of this kingdom, is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the Eaſt part of Down to the Weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth 160 miles, and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 159 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the paſſage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than 20 miles, and the paſſage from Holyhead in North Wales about 52 miles.

NAMES AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN. Many conjectures have been formed as to the Latin (Hibernia) the Iriſh (Erin) as well as the Engliſh name of this iſland. It probably takes its riſe from a Phœnician or Gaëlic term, ſignifying the fartheſt habitation weſtward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five circuits, and ſome into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter. The laſt diviſion is the moſt common, and likewiſe the moſt ancient. We ſhall, therefore in the firſt place, give this, and then ſubjoin the other diſtribution into Circuits.

Provinces.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
Leinſter, 12 counties.	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
	Eaſt Meath	Trim
	Weſt Meath	Mullingar
	King's County	Philipſtown
		Queen's County

Provinces.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
Leinſter, continued	Queen's County	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Naas and Athy
	Carlow	Carlow
Ulſter, 9 counties	Down	Down Patrick
	Armagh	Armagh
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan
	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Omagh
	Fermanagh	Enniſkillen
	Donegall	Lifford
Connaught, 5 counties.	Leitrim	Carrick on Shannon
	Roſcommon	Roſcommon
	Mayo	Ballinrobe and Caſtlebar
	Sligo	Sligo
	Galway	Galway
Munſter, 6 counties.	Clare	Ennis
	Cork	Cork
	Kerry	Tralee
	Limerick	Limerick
	Tipperary	Clonmel
	Waterford	Waterford.

But for the convenience of adminiſtering juſtice, the circuits are laid out in the *five* following allotments.

Leinſter Circuit 7 Counties.	Kildare
	Wicklow
	Wexford
	Carlow
	Kilkenny
	King's County
	Queen's County
Munſter Circuit 6 Counties	Waterford
	Tipperary
	Cork
	Kerry
	Limerick
	Clare in the province of Connaught
Ulſter North-weſt Circuit 7 Counties	Weſtmeath } in the province of Leinſter
	Longford }
	Cavan
	Fermanagh
	Tyrone
	Donegal
	Londonderry

Ulſter North-Eaſt Circuit 6 counties	Meath, or Eaſt Meath	in the province of Leinſter
	Louth	
	Down	
	Armagh	
	Monaghan	
	Antrim	
Connaught Circuit 5 counties	Roſcommon	
	Leitrim	
	Sligo	
	Mayo	
	Galway	

Dublin county, and the county of the city of Dublin, are two ſeparate juriſdictions, and the laws in both are adminiſtered under ſpecial commiſſions or at quarter ſeſſions; the former at Kimainham, and the latter in the court of king's bench in the ſaid city.

CLIMATES, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, except that it is more moiſt. The ſoil is rocky, but extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itſelf. Paſturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep, and the Iriſh wool is excellent. The prodigious ſupplies of butter and ſalt proviſions (fiſh excepted) ſhipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the ſtrongeſt proofs of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil.

The bogs of Ireland are very extenſive: that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others very extenſive, and ſmaller ones ſcattered over the whole kingdom: but theſe in general are very uſeful for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES.] The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks ſpreading quite acroſs it, ſouth of Killaloe; but this might be remedied by a ſhort canal, at the expence of 10 or 12,000l. and communications might alſo be made with other rivers, to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Coleraine, the Boyne falls into St. George's Channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the Bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a ſpacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, they fall into the channel at Waterford Haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country, beyond any other in Europe, the beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvan, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare,

mare, Dingle, Shannon-mouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fiſh; and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Iriſh lakes afford the moſt beautiful and romantic proſpects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a ſmall town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely ſurrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with evergreens, from near their tops to the lakes themſelves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, ſome from heights of little leſs than 300 feet. On the top of one of the ſurrounding mountains is a ſmall round lake of about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch Bowl. From the ſurface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards, and when viewed from the circular top has a moſt aſtoniſhing appearance. The depth of it is vaſtly great, but not unfathomable as the natives pretend. The diſcharge of the ſuperfluous waters of this bowl, through a chaſm into the middle lake, forms one of the fineſt caſcades in the world, viſible for 150 yards. The echoes amongſt the hills ſurrounding the ſouthern part of the lake, which is moſtly inloſed, are equally delightful and aſtoniſhing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmore, has placed ſome cannon in the moſt proper places for the amuſement of travellers; and the diſcharge of theſe pieces is tremendous, reſembling moſt the rolling of a violent peal of thunder; which ſeems to travel the ſurrounding ſcenery, and die away among the diſtant mountains. Here alſo muſical inſtruments, eſpecially the French horn and trumpet, afford the moſt delightful entertainment, and raiſe a concert ſuperior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vaſt and craggy heights that ſurround the lake, is one ſtupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a moſt horrid precipice, called the *Eagle's neſt*, from the number of thoſe birds which have their neſts in that place. Though theſe loughs, in the main, have but few properties that are not in common with the like bodies of water in other countries, yet they have given riſe to many traditionary accounts among the natives, which diſfigure and diſgrace their true hiſtory; and even modern geographers have been more copious on that head than either truth or the ſubject can admit of. The Iriſh are ſo fond of loughs, that, like the Scots, they often give that term to inlets of the ſea.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom; one in particular reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic Ocean. In ſurveying the grounds for this canal, it was found neceſſary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which, from the ſpungy nature of that ſoil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in ſtrengthening the ſides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Iriſh language has been more happy in diſtinguiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *ſlieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and continued in ſeveral ridges; a *bienn*, or binn, ſignifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. Ireland however, when compared with ſome other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the kingdom; of which Slieu-Denard has been

calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous hiſtories that are annexed to ſome of them. Some theſe mountains contain in their bowels beds of minerals, coals, ſtone, ſlate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſter, the King's and Queen's counties, and thoſe of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulſter there are great foreſts, and in the county of Donegall, and in the north part of Tyrone; alſo in the county of Fermanagh, along Loagh Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is ſome good timber; and the oak is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late diſcoveries. Several contain ſilver and lead, and it is ſaid that thirty pounds of their lead-ore produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine have been diſcovered at Tipperary: as likewiſe iron ore, and excellent free-ſtone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a ſtream of water, very much impregnated with copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by putting broad plates of iron into a place where the water falls from ſome height, ſo that they may receive the whole power of the falling water. The acid, which holds the copper in ſolution, lets it fall in order to diſſolve the iron, to which it has a ſtronger affinity. On the iron the other metal appears in its proper form, in cruſting the plate, and gradually penetrating it; ſo that at laſt a plate of copper is left inſtead of iron. Hence it is ſaid by the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron into copper; but this is a miſtake, for the iron is all diſſolved and carried down the ſtream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in ſolution, while the latter, deprived of its ſolvent, which then rendered it inviſible, only makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some of the Iriſh marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red ſtriped with white. Quarries of fine ſlate are found in moſt of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little ſmoke; and it contains a cryſtalline ſtream which has no ſediment. Thoſe peculiarities, with the ſerenity of the air in that place, have given riſe to the well-known proverb, That Kilkenny contains fire without ſmoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the ſame as thoſe of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moſs, which are of vaſt ſervice for firing, where wood and coals are ſcarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland; but they have been long ſince exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped like greyhounds, yet as gentle and governable as ſpaniels. What I have already obſerved about the Iriſh exportation of ſalt proviſions, ſufficiently evinces the prodigious number of hogs and ſheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are ſaid to be more plentiful there than in England. The fiſh that are caught upon the coaſts of Ireland are likewiſe in greater plenty than on thoſe of England, and ſome of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

POPULALION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] Ireland is ſaid to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I ſuſpect that the calculation is overcharged by near half a million. As it is of great conſequence to aſcertain, as nearly as poſſible, the number of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we ſhall give them according to the beſt accounts as they ſtood in the four provinces in 1733.

In Ulſter

	Proteſtant Families:		Popiſh Families
In Ulſter	62,620		38,459
Leinſter	25,238		92,424
Munſter	13,337		106,407
Connaught	4,299		44,133
Total	105,494	Total	281,423

Which, at five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and ſeven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 ſouls. I am apt to think, when we conſider the waſte of war by ſea and land, and the vaſt emigrations of the Iriſh to England, the Britiſh colonies, and other nations, that the above calculation may nearly ſerve for the preſent times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly riſen on the ſide of Proteſtantiſm; but, in ſome late debates in the Iriſh parliament in 1786, it has been aſſerted, that the number of inhabitants of Ireland amount to three millions. Other accounts, which appear rather exaggerated, make the population of this kingdom amount to four millions.

As to the manners of the ancient Iriſh Dr. Leland obſerves, that if we make our enquiries on this ſubject in Engliſh writers, we find their repreſentations odious and diſguſting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the moſt animated encomiums of their great anceſtors. The one can ſcarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthuſiaſtic ardour, can ſcarcely diſcover the leaſt imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The hiſtorian of England ſometimes regards them as the moſt deteſtable, and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raiſes them to an illuſtrious eminence, above all other European countries. Yet, when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fiction, we find them, even in their moſt brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civilization, a ſtate which exhibits the moſt ſtriking inſtances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With reſpect to the preſent deſcendants of the old Iriſh, or, as they are termed by the Proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, they are generally repreſented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering ſort of people. Impatient of abuſe and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient of hardſhips. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbariſms are more eaſy to be accounted for from accidental than natural cauſes. By far the greateſt number of them are Papiſts, and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who govern them with an abſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ignorance. They have alſo laboured under many diſcouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they have been diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their ſurnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon: formerly the *O* was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves upon the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bag-pipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of the lateſt airs are lively, and, when ſung by an Iriſhman, extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this cuſtom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſed even in the ſkirts of Dublin, though one would wiſh to ſee it aboliſhed. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger. But, as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the

more

more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland, while their tyrannical landlords or leaſeholders ſqueeze the poor without mercy. The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble the ancient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve double purpoſes, one part accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and fiſh, conſtitute their food; for however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor natives ſeldom taſte butcher's meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robuſt and hardy, ſcarcely know the uſe of cloaths, and are not aſhamed to appear naked on the roads, and gaze upon ſtrangers.

The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themſelves of the uncomfortable ſituation in which the Iriſh were at home, by alluring them to enter their ſervice; and in this they have hitherto been aſſiſted by prieſts and Jeſuits, whoſe intereſt it was to infuſe into the minds of their credulous diſciples an averſion to the Britiſh government; but we have now the pleaſing proſpect of a happy reformation among theſe people, in conſequence of the late laws paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain in favour of Ireland, as well as from the numerous Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools lately eſtabliſhed over the kingdom; which inſtitutions will undoubtedly ſtrike deeper at the root of popery than all the endeavours of the Britiſh monarchs to reduce them.

The deſcendants of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince the conqueſt of Ireland by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous, form the wealthieſt part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and northern coaſts, where moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on; eſpecially Belfaſt, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter, which, though the pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots, in the reign of James I. and other Preſbyterians, who fled from perſecution in that country, in the ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves, and eſtabliſhed that great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth the linen manufactory, whith they have ſince carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection. From this ſhort review it appears, that the preſent inhabitants are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt, upon the interior or weſtern parts; the deſcendants of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are ſo zealouſly attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require ſome ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are ſo thoroughly conſolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better ſort of the Iriſh nation, in general differ little in language, dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known, but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of Ireland is the ſame with that of England. Among the bulk of the people, in the moſt uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent.

The

The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent Proteſtaniſm from making a very rapid progreſs in the towns and communities. How far it may be the intereſt of England, that ſome kind of balance between the two religions ſhould be kept up, I ſhall not here enquire. Ireland contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly or to-Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts, who are all of them connived at, or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever ſince the days of James I. in erecting free-ſchools for civiliſing and converting the Iriſh Papiſts to Proteſtaniſm. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working-ſchools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh. Toward promoting theſe uſeful purpoſes, the parliament of Ireland has been uncomly liberal; but many of its grants have been miſmanaged or miſapplied.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.

The biſhopricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limeric, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The uſage of the Iriſh language occaſions among the common people, who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general, and even among the better ſort, who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning ſeems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early pepiod. Mr. O'Halloran ſays that the Iriſh 'appear to have 'been, from the moſt remote antiquity, a poliſhed people, and that with propriety 'they may be called, the Fathers of Letters.' We are even told, that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is repreſented as the great anceſtor of the Iriſh nation. But theſe accounts are conſidered by many as fabulous: and it has been obſerved that no literary monuments have yet been diſcovered in Ireland earlier than the introduction of Chriſtianity into this country; and that the evidence of any tranſactions previous to this period, reſts entirely on the credit of Chriſtian writers, and their collections from old poets, or their tranſcripts of records deemed to have been made in the times of Paganiſm.

It is ſaid, that when St. Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Chriſtian preachers there, whoſe votaries were pious and obedient. Camden obſerves, that 'the Iriſh ſcholars of St. Patrick profited ſo notably in Chriſtianity, 'that, in the ſucceeding age, Ireland was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their monks 'ſo greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they ſent whole flocks of moſt 'learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the firſt founders of Lieuxeu 'abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburgh, in Franco-'nia; St. Gall, in Switzerland; and of Malmſbury, Lindisfarran, and many other 'monaſteries in Britain.' We have alſo the teſtimony of Venerable Bede, that about the middle of the ſeventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for inſtruction,

* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and ſays, that "it appears from the moſt authentic records, that Patrick was from Wales."

or for an opportunity of living in monaſteries of ſtricter diſcipline: and that the Scots (as he ſtyles the Iriſh) maintained them, taught them, and furniſhed them with books, without fee or reward: 'a moſt honourable teſtimony,' ſays lord Lyttleton, 'not only to the learning, but likewiſe to the hoſpitality and bounty of 'that nation.' Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired iſland, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confuſion, gave peculiar luſtre to this ſeat of learning: nor is it improbable or ſurpriſing, that ſeven thouſand ſtudents ſtudied at Armagh, agreeably to the accounts of Iriſh writers, though the ſeminary of Armagh was but one of thoſe numerous colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Iriſh have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the republic of letters. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to his country. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of diſtinguiſhed genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may alſo be particularly mentioned ſir Richard Steele, biſhop Berkeley, Parnel, Sterne, and Goldſmith.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one univerſity, which is denominated Trinity-college. It conſiſts of two ſquares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three ſides of one of the ſquares are of brick, and the fourth is a very ſuperb library, but being built of bad ſtone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inſide is beautiful and commodious, and embelliſhed with the buſts of ſeveral ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one ſide were collected by archbiſhop Uſher, who was one of the original members of this body. The new ſquare, three ſides of which have been lately built, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament Square, is of hewn ſtone; and the front of it, next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilaſters, feſtoons, &c. The provoſt's houſe has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland ſtone. The chapel is a very mean ſtructure, as is alſo the old hall, wherein college exerciſes are performed: but the new hall, in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room. In their muſeum, is a ſet of figures in wax, repreſenting females in every ſtate of pregnancy. They are done upon real ſkeletons, and are the labours of almoſt the whole life of a French artiſt.

This ſeminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation conſiſted only of a provoſt, three fellows, and three ſcholars; which has from time to time, been augmented to twenty-two fellows, ſeventy ſcholars, and thirty ſizers. However, the whole number of ſtudents is at preſent about four hundred; who are of three claſſes, fellow-commoners, penſioners, and ſizers, or ſervitors. Of the fellows, ſeven are called ſeniors, and the annual income of each of theſe is about ſeven hundred pounds. The provoſtſhip is ſuppoſed to be worth three thouſand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. The viſitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] I have already mentioned the wolf-dogs in Ireland. The Iriſh goſ-hawks and ger-falcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. The mooſe-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, their horns being ſometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one pair has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giant's Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pococke, late biſhop of Oſſory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He ſays, 'that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60

feet farther upon a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is like that loſt in the water.

'The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about one foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

'But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurpriſing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement, about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum five inches thick of the red. Over this is another ſtratum ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles.'

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and ſeveral pamphlets have been employed in deſcribing them. As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone towers, found upon the coaſts, and ſuppoſed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical excurſions, who made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light-houſes or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is in magnitude and populouſneſs, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions; much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Lyons, and is ſuppoſed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated 270 miles north-weſt of London, and near ſixty miles weſt from Holyhead in North Wales, the uſual ſtation of paſſage veſſels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both ſides, which forms ſpacious and noble quays, where veſſels below the firſt bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and ware-houſes. A ſtranger, upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about ſeven miles broad, and in ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably ſurpriſed with the beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes no great appearance. Dublin has greatly increaſed within twenty years laſt paſt, and it is generally ſuppoſed that 7000 houſes have been added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. The number of houſes in the year 1777, was 17,151, and there have been many new buildings

erected ſince. In its appearance, this city bears a near reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but the new ſtreets are as elegant as thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable as far as the cuſtom-houſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall, when compared with the Thames at London. Over it are two handſome ſtone-bridges, lately built in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the cuſtom-houſe, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purpoſes; but of late a new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex-bridge to the caſtle, where the lord-lieutenant reſides. A new exchange has likewiſe been erected, an elegant ſtructure of white ſtone, richly embelliſhed with ſemi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards are relieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt and completeſt building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot and 1000 horſe.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stephen's Green is a moſt extenſive ſquare, round which is a gravel walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock; and in fine weather make a very gay appearance. Many of the houſes round the green are very ſtately, but a want of uniformity is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near Stephen's Green, now laid out and partly built. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 300 feet, is built of Portland ſtone in the fineſt taſte.

The parliament houſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at the expence of 40,000l. This ſuperb pile is, in general, of the Ionic order. The portico is magnificent; the internal parts have many beauties, and the manner in which the building is lighted, has been much admired. But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age can boaſt of, is the building a ſtone wall abo[illegible] the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, and of a proportionate height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the ſame as in London. Every third year, the lord-mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the franchiſes. Upon this occaſion the citizens vie with each other in ſhow and oſtentation, which is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. In this city are 18 pariſh churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch proteſtants, 7 preſbyterian meeting houſes, 1 for methodiſts, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-

lying-in hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunatics, founded by the famous dean Swift, who himſelf died a lunatic; and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding with more taſte. And, indeed, which ever way a ſtranger turns himſelf in this city, he will perceive marks of elegance; and if he extends his views over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility are no where more encouraged than in Ireland, chiefly through the munificence of parliament.

It is, however, matter of ſurpriſe, that with all this ſpirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. Even in the capital, there is not one inn which deſerves that name. This may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for by the long, and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Holyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland may by this means become more frequented, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the moſt luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with a ſameneſs which runs through the whole: but in thoſe counties of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds, the extenſive lakes, enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently preſent themſelves in various forms and ſhapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleaſing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough and unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deſervedly reckoned the ſecond city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles ſouth-weſt of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houſes. Its haven is deep, and ſheltered from all winds; but ſmall veſſels only can come up to the city, which ſtands about ſeven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter, ſhipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland together. Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port, particularly of thoſe bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee iſlands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were eleven churches in Cork, though there are now only ſeven, and yet it has ever ſince that time been eſteemed a thriving city; but it muſt be obſerved, that beſide the churches, there are at this time ſix maſs houſes, two diſſenting meeting-houſes, another for quakers, and a chapel for French proteſtants.—Kinſale is a populous and ſtrong town, with an excellent harbour, and conſiderable commerce and ſhipping: and it is, moreover, an excellent ſtation for the royal navy; for which end this port is furniſhed with proper naval officers and ſtorekeepers.—Waterford comes next to Cork for riches and ſhipping, and contains 2561 houſes. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a citadel.—Limerick is a handſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong city, it lies on both ſides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houſes.

Belfaſt, is a large ſea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen Water, where it falls into Carrickfergus bay.—Downpatrick has a flouriſhing linen manufacture.—Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus), by ſome deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and caſtle, but little commerce.—Derry (or Londonderry, as it is moſt uſually called) ſtands on Lough-Foyl, is a ſtrong, but ſmall city, having linen manufactures, with ſome commerce and ſhipping. This northern part of Ireland is ſituated ſo near to Scotland, that they are in ſight of each other's coaſts.—Donegal, the county-town of the ſame name (otherwiſe called

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the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkilling. All which laſt mentioned places, and others leſs conſiderable are moſt induſtriouſly employed in the manufacturing of linen, and linen thread, to the great benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vaſt annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewiſe to render the money conſtantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her abſentees, leſs grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no ſtrong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has ſeveral forts and garriſons, that ſerve as comfortable ſinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinſale, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of theſe forts is furniſhed with deputy-governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary proviſions from the government.

It cannot be pretended, that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with any public edifices, to compare with thoſe to be found in countries where ſovereigns and their courts reſide, but it has ſome elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The parliament-houſe, caſtle, Eſſex bridge, and ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent; and elegant pieces of architecture, and many noble Gothic churches, and other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland. The Iriſh nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of England in the magnificent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjuſt, where there are ſo many equal in taſte and magnificence to particularize any. In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I muſt not forget the barracks where the ſoldiers are lodged, equally to the eaſe and convenience of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The exports of Ireland are linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horſes, black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, copper-ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins and fur, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, and ſalmon; but it is probable that the exports of Ireland will be greatly increaſed by the late laws paſſed in favour of the trade of that kingdom. It is certain that the Iriſh have carried their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury, to a conſiderable height, and that their lord-lieutenants, and their court, have of late greatly encouraged them, and while they are in that government, make uſe of no other.

COMMERCIAL INSTITUTIONS.] The Dublin ſociety for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce was incorporated 1750. The linen-hall erected at Dublin, is under as juſt and nice regulations as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland was formerly entitled the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and the king's ſtyle was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king, which is recogniſed by act parliament in the ſame reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; ſo England and Ireland are diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For after the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſmore; and as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, continued in a ſtate of dependence, it was thought neceſſary, that it ſhould conform to, and be obliged by, ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thought proper to preſcribe.

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it was thought neceſſary ſome years ago, to declare how that matter ſtood: and therefore, by ſtatute 6th of George I. it is declared, "that the king-

kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto: and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." This determination of the Britiſh parliament occaſioned much diſſatisfaction among the Iriſh, who at length, feeling their own ſtrength by means of their volunteer aſſociations, and encouraged and favoured by the ſeveral parties contending for the adminiſtration in England, obtained, in the year 1782, a formal repeal of the above ſtatute, which was conſidered as a renunciation on the part of the parliament of Great Britain of every claim of legiſlation over Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is ſent over from England by the king, whom he repreſents; but his power is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publicly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the uſual oaths before the lord-chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy-council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and he never appears publickly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence, with reſpect to his authority, his train, and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in Chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, earls, biſhops, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ and generally ſits once every year. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords and commons. Of the former, many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers, or commons of Great Britain; a few are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amount to about three hundred. Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. The repreſentation of the people in the ſenate of Ireland, is in many inſtances like that of England, partial, and inadequate. The acts paſſed by the houſe of lords and commons are ſent to England for the approbation of his majeſty and council, which having obtained, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's-bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord-lieutenant. From this general view it appears, that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

Revenues.] In Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to public purpoſes; but there is, beſides this, a private revenue ariſing from the ancient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and felony, priſage of wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the ſame unlimited property that a ſubject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland amounts nearly to 1,000,000l. and the public expenditure exceeds that ſum. The Iriſh complain greatly, and juſtly, that of this revenue, about 70,000l. is granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees. Very large ſums are alſo granted by their own parliament for more valuable purpoſes, the

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improvement of their country, and civilizing the people; ſuch as the inland navigation, bridges, high-ways, churches, premiums, proteſtant ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wiſdom and patriotiſm of that parliament. In 1787 the national debt was 2,302,146l. chiefly contracted for national improvements.

COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denominations and the like fabric with thoſe of England, only an Engliſh ſhilling paſſes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Iriſh were, is at preſent a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Ireland now maintains and pays an army of 15,000 men; and the military force of Ireland has been greatly increaſed by the many volunteer aſſociated companies, which have been lately formed in that kingdom. Thoſe parts of Ireland that are moſt cultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little ſenſe either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them in order; witneſs the late inſurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, inſtigated, it is ſaid, by their prieſts, though it muſt be owned that many of the common people of Ireland have laboured under ſuch oppreſſions as afforded them juſt grounds for diſcontent: amongſt which we may reckon the hardſhip of the far greater number being obliged to ſupport the religious eſtabliſhment of the few. It does not, however, appear that the bulk of the Iriſh Catholics are fond of a revolution in government, as few or none of them joined Thurot in his deſcent upon Carrickfergus, or took any part with the Pretender in the laſt rebellion.

ORDER OF ST. PATRICK.] This order was inſtituted February 5, and the inſtallation of the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March 1783. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand maſters of the order, and the archbiſhop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbiſhop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the regiſter of the order. The knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are ſplendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a croſs, with the motto round *Quis ſeparabit*, 1783, faſtened by an Iriſh harp to the crown imperial. A ſtar of eight points encircles it on the coat.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater juſtice than that of almoſt any other country, be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulſter prince boaſted to the pope of an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of one hundred and ninety-ſeven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries carry their hiſtory up to about 500 years before the Chriſtian æra, at which time they aſſert, that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, ſettled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into that country: and that however it might have been peopled ſtill earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the ſons of Mileſius, gave a race of kings to the Iriſh, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and conteſted part of the Iriſh hiſtory, we ſhall only obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apoſtle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Chriſtianity in that kingdom, though Chriſtian miſſionaries had been there long before, by whoſe means it had made a conſiderable progreſs among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occaſionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England: but in the year 795 and 798 the Danes and Normans, or as they were called, the Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſts of Ireland, and were the firſt who erected ſtone edifices there. The common habitations of the Iriſh, till that time, were of hurdles

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covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and but very few of ſolid timber. The natives defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork; but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeemed to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power; and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the Iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a deſign of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is ſaid to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from ſome of the Iriſh chieftains, who had afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance to his enemies. His deſign was patroniſed by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, and an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderic O'Connor (who it ſeems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him, upon taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England for himſelf, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cauſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. Thoſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conqueſt of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendants of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which, after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers; but Mac Turkil, the Daniſh king, eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtate in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh, about the ſame time, to the amount of above 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs; and going over to England he appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hand all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his nobility, landed near Waterford: and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, except the king of Ulſter, but the great king Roderic O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry; who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſequently he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the eſtates in Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin, as nearly as poſſible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free

cuſtoms, ſay their charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flouriſh. Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh, almoſt with as much eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for much the ſame reaſons, the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among the princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves odious to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I. was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay much regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter, which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties; but the deſcendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own ſtates; and indeed this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of James I. The unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity, gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during his reign; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh intereſt, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies; and being ſupported by his brother in perſon, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and he was at laſt defeated and killed by Bermingham, the Engliſh general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progreſs, but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, that at this time the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances they complained of was, that the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh regarded his preſence as a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he behaved ſo as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very deſpotic manner in England, he undertook a freſh expedition into Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord-lieutenant the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army again ſtruck the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy.

It

It was during this expedition, that the duke of Lancaſter landed in England; and Richard, upon his return, finding himſelf deſerted by his Engliſh ſubjects on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retained a warm affection for the houſe of York; and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cauſe. Edward IV. made the earl of Deſmond lord-lieutenant of Ireland for his ſervices againſt the Ormond party and other adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter, and he was the *firſt Iriſh chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Iriſh to his title as duke of Lancaſter; they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious at firſt of joining Perkin Warbeck, who was, however, at laſt recognized as king by the Iriſh; and in the preceding pages under the hiſtory of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretenſions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his unfortunate partizans, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effect, during the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other, but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, his lord-lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord-deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at laſt hanged at Tyburn. After this, the houſe of Auſtria found their account in their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to ſpeak the truth, it was ſomewhat ſurpriſing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government than ever had been known; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable, that the Reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman catholics both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs; and the pope and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are related in the Engliſh hiſtory.

The lord-deputy-Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Engliſhman who

gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing Tyrone priſoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, ſhewn to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehenſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ireland. James I. confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party planned a new rebellion, and attempted to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond ſeas. They were not idle abroad, for in 1608 they inſtigated ſir Calim O'Dogharty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels, which paſſed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, veſted in the crown 511,464 acres, in the ſeveral counties of Donnegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that proteſtant plantation in the North of Ireland, which now, from the moſt rebellious province of the kingdom, is the moſt quiet and reformed.

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and neceſſary they might be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman Catholics, in general, were influenced by their prieſts to hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacring all the Engliſh proteſtants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy diſſenſions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the Engliſh government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed, in 1641, their horrid ſcheme of maſſacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſtant writers, ſome of whom make them amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thouſand, but the moſt moderate, and probably the moſt reaſonable account is that they were about forty thouſand.* What followed in conſequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Iriſh papiſts, belongs to the hiſtory of England. It is certain they ſmarted ſo ſeverely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucceſſor and brother James II. even after the Revolution took place, found an aſylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the aſſiſtance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that king William ever gained in perſon; a victory, however, on which depended the ſafety of the proteſtant religion, and the liberties of the Britiſh empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been reinſtated on the throne, and nothing elſe could be expected than that being irritated by oppoſition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every reſtraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and purſued more arbitrary deſigns than before. The army of William conſiſted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000 but advantageouſly ſituated. But James fought at the head of an undiſciplined rabble; and his French auxiliaries were far from behaving like heroes.

The forfeitures that fell to the crown, on account of the Iriſh rebellions and the Revolution, are almoſt incredible; and had the acts of parliament which gave them away been ſtrictly enforced, Ireland muſt have been peopled with Britiſh inhabitants. But many political reaſons occurred for not driving the Iriſh to deſpair. The friends

* See Hume's Hiſt. of England vol. vi. p. 377, 8vo. edit.

of the Revolution and the proteſtant religion were ſufficiently gratified out of the forfeited eſtates. Too many of the Roman Catholics might have been forced abroad; and it was proper that a due balance ſhould be preſerved between the Roman Catholic and the proteſtant intereſt. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorouſly into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wiſdom of the above conſiderations. The lenity of the meaſures purſued in regard to the Iriſh Roman Catholics, and the great pains taken for the inſtruction of their children, with the progreſs which knowledge and the arts made in that country, greatly diminiſhed the popiſh intereſt. The ſpirit of induſtry enabled the Iriſh to know their own ſtrength and importance; towards which effect ſome accidental circumſtances concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament were made occaſionally for permitting the importation of ſalt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain.

But though ſome laws and regulations had occaſionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it muſt be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under conſiderable grievances, in conſequence of ſundry injudicious reſtraints of the parliament of England reſpecting their trade. Theſe reſtraints had injured Ireland without benefiting Great Britain. The Iriſh had been prohibited from manufacturing their own wool, in order to favour the woollen manufactory of England; the conſequence of which was, that the Iriſh wool was ſmuggled over into France, and the people of that country were thereby enabled to rival us in our woollen manufacture, and to deprive us of a part of that trade. An embargo had alſo been laid on the exportation of proviſions from Ireland, which had been extremely prejudicial to that kingdom. The diſtreſſes of the Iriſh manufacturers, as well as thoſe of Great Britain, had likewiſe been much increaſed by the conſequences of the American war. Theſe circumſtances occaſioned great murmuring in Ireland, and ſome unſucceſsful attempts were made for the relief of the inhabitants of that kingdom in the Britiſh parliament. But a large body of the king's troops being withdrawn from Ireland, in order to be employed in the American war, a conſiderable number of Iriſh gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other perſons, armed and formed themſelves into volunteer aſſociations, for the defence of Ireland againſt foreign invaders. By degrees, theſe volunteer aſſociations became numerous and well-diſciplined: and it was ſoon diſcovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to defend themſelves againſt foreign enemies. When theſe armed aſſociations became numerous and formidable, the Iriſh began to aſſume an higher tone than that to which they had before been accuſtomed; and it was ſoon manifeſt, that their remonſtrances met with unuſual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, on the 11th of May 1779, preſented an addreſs to the king, recommending to his majeſty's moſt ſerious conſideration the diſtreſſed and impoveriſhed ſtate of the loyal and well-deſerving people of Ireland, and deſiring him to direct that there ſhould be prepared, and laid before parliament, ſuch particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, as ſhould enable the national wiſdom to purſue effectual meaſures for promoting the common ſtrength, wealth, and commerce of his majeſty's ſubjects in both kingdoms. To this addreſs the king returned a favourable anſwer: and in October, the ſame year, both houſes of the Iriſh parliament alſo preſented addreſſes to his majeſty, in which they declared, that nothing but granting Ireland a free trade could ſave it from ruin. Notwithſtanding which, it being ſoon after ſuſpected by many of the people of that kingdom, that the members of their parliament would not exert themſelves with vigour in promoting the intereſts

of

of the nation, a very daring and numurous mob aſſembled before the parliament-houſe in Dublin, crying out for a *free trade*, and a *ſhort money-bill*. They aſſaulted the members, and endeavoured to compel them to ſwear, that they would ſupport the intereſt of their country by voting for a ſhort money-bill; and they demoliſhed the houſe of the attorney-general. The tumult at length ſubſided; and two Iriſh money-bills, for ſix months only, were ſent over to England, where they paſſed the great ſeal, and were immediately returned, without any diſſatisfaction being expreſſed by government at this limited grant.

In the mean time, the members of the oppoſition, in the Engliſh parliament, very ſtrongly repreſented the neceſſity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wiſhes. The arguments on this ſide of the queſtion were alſo enforced by the accounts which came from Ireland, that the volunteer aſſociations in that kingdom amounted to forty thouſand men, unpaid, ſelf-appointed, and independent of government, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in diſcipline, and which afterwards increaſed to eighty thouſand. The Britiſh miniſtry appeared for ſome time undetermined what part they ſhould act in this important buſineſs: but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous meaſures reſpecting America, and the very critical ſituation of Great Britain, at length induced the firſt lord of the treaſury to bring in ſuch bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland. Laws were accordingly paſſed, by which all thoſe acts were repealed, which had prohibited the exportation of wollen manufactures from Ireland, and other acts by which the trade of that kingdom to foreign countries had been reſtrained: and it was likewiſe enacted, that a trade between Ireland and the Britiſh colonies in America, and the Weſt Indies, and the Britiſh ſettlements on the coaſts of Africa, ſhould be allowed to be carried on in the ſame manner, and ſubject to ſimilar regulations and reſtrictions, with that carried on between Great Britain and the ſaid colonies and ſettlements.

Theſe laws in favour of Ireland were received with much joy and exultation in that kingdom: and the Iriſh nation being indulged in their requiſitions reſpecting trade, now began alſo to aim at important conſtitutional reformations: and in various counties and cities of Ireland, the right of the Britiſh parliament to make laws which ſhould bind that kingdom was denied in public reſolutions. By degrees, the ſpirit which had been manifeſted by the Iriſh parliament ſeemed a little to ſubſide; and a remarkable inſtance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny bill, for the regulation of the Iriſh army, though that of England had always been paſſed, with a true conſtitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed againſt by ſome of the Iriſh patriots; and it is indeed not eaſy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconſiſtency: but this bill was afterwards repealed, and the commercial advantages offered them by late acts in their favour, have greatly contributed to promote the proſperity of Ireland. As before obſerved, by the act repealing the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. they are now fully and completely emancipated from the juriſdiction of the Britiſh parliament. The appellant juriſdiction of the Britiſh houſe of peers in Iriſh cauſes was alſo given up, and the political connection which ſo long ſubſiſted between the two nations is now reduced to this one circumſtance, that both being governed by the ſame king, Ireland is neceſſarily ſubject to the imperial crown of Great Britain. But though the Iriſh have obtained ſo great an extenſion of their liberties, it is very queſtionable whether it will terminate to their country's real advantage: their parties and diſſenſions increaſe, and it remains to eſtabliſh ſuch a commercial and political connection between the two kingdoms as will promote the intereſt and happineſs of both countries, and make them one great, ſtable, and invulnerable body.

Having brought down the hiſtory of this kingdom, as it ſtands connected with that of Great Britain, to the preſent year 1791; we ſhall only make a ſhort retroſpect to two or three other events of great publicity.

In the year 1783, the government, the nobility, and the people of Ireland, vied with each other in countenancing, and giving an aſſylum to many families of the Geneveſe, who were baniſhed from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themſelves for the cauſe of liberty, not willing to ſubmit to an ariſtocracy of their own citizens; ſupported by the ſwords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, entitled *New Geneva*, and a ſum of money granted for erecting the neceſſary buildings. Theſe preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately uſeleſs, by ſome miſunderſtandings, (not fully comprehended) which aroſe between the parties; and the ſcheme accordingly fell to the ground.

Upon the occaſion of the unhappy malady with which the king was afflicted, the lords and Commons of Ireland came to a reſolution to addreſs the prince of Wales, requeſting him to take upon him the government of that kingdom during his Majeſty's indiſpoſition, under the ſtyle and title of *Prince Regent* of *Ireland*, and to exerciſe and adminiſter, according to the laws and conſtitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, juriſdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging. The Marquis of Buckingham, being then lord lieutenant, having declined preſenting the addreſs, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houſes reſolved on appointing delegates from each: the lords appointed the duke of Leinſter, and the earl of Charlemont; and the commons, four of their members. The delegates proceeded to London, and preſented the addreſs to his royal highneſs, by whom they were moſt graciouſly received; but his majeſty having, to the infinite joy of all his ſubjects, recovered from his ſevere indiſpoſition, the prince returned them an anſwer fraught with the warmeſt ſentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to parliament, for the generous manner in which they propoſed inveſting him with the Regency, but, that the happy recovery of his royal father had now rendered his acceptance of it unneceſſary.

FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the kingdom of Ireland, we ſhall now return to the continent, beginning with the extenſive and mighty kingdom of France, being the neareſt to England; though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

Extent and Situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	600	between	5 Weſt and 8 Eaſt longitude.
Breadth	500		42 and 51 North latitude.

Boundaries.] It is bounded by the Engliſh channel and the Netherlands, on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, Eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biſcay, Weſt.

Diviſions.

DIVISIONS.] This kingdom is divided, and the dimenſions of the ſeveral parts diſtinctly ſpecified in the following table, by Mr. Templeman.

France.	Countries Names,	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Papiſts -	Orleannois - -	22,950	230	180	Orleans.
	Guienne - -	12,800	216	120	Bourdeaux.
	Gaſcoigne - -	8,800	125	90	Aux, or Augh.
	Languedoc - -	13,175	200	115	Thouloufe.
	Lyonnois - -	12,500	175	130	Lyons.
	Champagne - -	10,000	140	110	Rheims.
	Bretagne - -	9,100	170	105	Rennes.
	Normandy - -	8,200	155	85	Rouen.
	Provence - -	6,800	95	92	Aix.
	Burgundy - -	6,700	150	86	Dijon.
	Dauphine - -	5,820	107	90	Grenoble.
	Iſle of France -	5,200	100	85	PARIS { N. Lat. 48-50. E. Lon. 2-25.
	Franche Comte -	4,000	100	60	Beſançon.
	Picardy - -	3,650	120	87	Amiens.
	Rouſillon - -	1,400	50	44	Perpignan.
Netherlands	Artois - -	990	63	32	Arras.
	Hainault - -	800	57	22	Valenciennes.
	Flanders - -	760	58	22	Liſle
	Luxemburg - -	292	48	13	Thionville.
Germany	Lorrain - -	2,500	—	—	Metz.
	Alſace - -	2,250	95	30	Straſburgh.
	Total	138,687			

To theſe is to be added the iſland of Corſica; but the city of Avignon, with the Venaiſſin, was in 1774 ceded to the pope.

The kingdom of France has alſo been ſubdivided in the following manner:

Prov. Parts	Subdivions.	Chief Towns.	Port Towns.
Picardy, Higher	Amienois	Amiens	Calais, &c.
	Tierache	Guiſe	
	Vermandois	St. Quintin	
	Santerae	Peronne	
Picardy, Lower	Ponthieu	Abbeville	
	Boulonois	Boulogne	
	Ardres	Ardre	
	Reconquered Country	Calais, Creſſy, Guiſnes.	

Prov.	Parts	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns	Port Towns
Normandy	Higher	Rouenois	Rouen	Dieppe, Havre-de-Grace, Harfleur, Cherburg, Honfleur.
		Paix Caux	Gaudebec	
		Evereux	Evreux	
		Bray	Gourny	
	Lower	Caen	Caen	
		Lifieux	Lifieux	
		Bayeux	Bayeux	
		Goutantin	Countance	
		Averanches	Avranche	
		Seez	Seez	
		Alenfon	Alenfon	

Iſlands—Guernſey, Jerſey, and Alderney, ſubject to Great Britain.

Towns from whence Engliſh Noblemen take their titles, viz. Aumale or Albemarle, and Granville.

Iſle of France	S. W. N. E. of the Seine	Iſle of France Proper	Paris	
		Valois	Senlis, Creſpy	
		Vexin François	Pontoiſe	
		Beauvoiſin	Beauvois	
		Soiſſons	Soiſſons	
		Laonois	Laon	
		Brie	Meaux, Lagny	
		Haurepoix	Melun	
	S. W.	Mantois	Mants	
		Ganenois, Part	Nemours	

Palaces—Verſailles, Marli, Fontainbleau, and St. Germains.

Champagne	Lower	Champagne Proper	Troyes	
		Sennois	Sens	
		Baſſigni	Langres	
		Brie Champenois	Provins	
	Upper	Rhemois	Rhemes	
		Rethelois	Rethel	
		High Champagne, or Perthois	St. Dix	
		Chalonois	Chalons	
		Valage	Jomvis	

Bretagne	Higher	Rennes	Rennes	Morlaix, Port Louis, or Blavet, Port L'Orient, Breſt.
		Nantois	Nants	
		Brieux	Brieux	
		St. Malo	St. Malo	
		Dole	Dole	
	Lower	Vannes	Vannes	
		Triguer	Triguer	
		St. Pol de Leon	Breſt	
		Quimper Corentin	Quimper	

Iſlands——Uſhant, Belleiſle, and Port Mourtier.

Prov.	Parts	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Port Towns.
Orleannois	On the Loire, N. of Loire	Orleannois Proper	Orleans	
		Blaſois	Blois	
		Tourain	Tours	
		Anjou	Augers	
			Beaufort, from whence the Duke of Beaufort takes his title	
		Nivernois	Nivers	
		Maine	Mans	
		Perthe	Fugent	
		Beauce	Chartres	
		Vendoſmois	Vendoſme	
	S. of the Loire	Poi Bu	Poictiers	
		Luconois	Lucon	
		Augoumois	Angouleſme	
		Aunois	Rochelle, Rochefort	
			Aubigni, from whence the Duke of Richmond takes his title of Duke in France	
		Berry	Bourges	
		Gaſtenois, Part	Moutargis	

Other great towns, Saumur.
Iſlands—Oleron, Rhe, and Oye.

Burgundy	Duchy of	Dijonois	Dijon	
		Autonois	Autun	
		Chalanois	Chalons on the Soane	
		Auxois	Semur	
		Auxerois	Auxerre	
		Charolois	Charolles	
		Briennois	Semur	
		Maccinois	Macon	
		The Mountains	Chatillon	
	County of, or Franche Comte	1. Bailage of Dole	Dole	
			Beſançon	
		2. Bailage of Amont	Veſoul	
			Salims	
		3. Bailage of Aval	Poligmy	
			St. Claude	
		Breſte	Bourgh	
		Beugey	Belley	
		Gex	Gex	
		Dombes Proper	Trevoux	
		Montbelliard	Montbelliard, ſubject to the Duke of Wirtemberg	

Pro.	Parts	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Port Towns.
Lyonnois	East	Lyonnois Proper	Lyons	
		Beajolois	Beaujeu	
		Forez	Feurs	
	West	Auvergne Higher	Clermont	
		Auvergne Lower	St. Flour	
		Bourbonnois	Bourbon, Archiban	
		Marche	Gueret	
Dauphine	North	Viennois, between the Rhone and the Iſere	Vienne	
		Valencionnois	Valence on the Rhone	
		Greſavaudan	Grenoble on the Iſere	
		Gapenois	Gap	
	South	Embrunois	Embrun	
		Diois	Die	
		The Baronies	Buis	
		St. Paul Tricaſtin	St. Paul	
		Briançonois	Briançon	
Guienne	South	Guienne Proper	Bourdeaux	
		Bazadois	Bazas	
		Agenois	Agen	
		Rouergue	Rhodez	
	North	Santoign	Saintes	
		Perigort	Perigeux	
		Limoſin	Ligoges	
		Quercy	Cahors	
Provence	Dioceſes of	Aix	Aix	
		Riez	Riez, Senez, Digne — in the middle of Provence	
		Senez		
		Digne		
		Arles	Arles on the Rhone	
		Marſeilles	Marſeilles, Toulon, Frejus — on the ſea	Hieres and Antibes, on the ſea.
		Toulon		
		Frejus		
		Grace	Grace, Vence, Glandeve — East	
		Vence		
		Glandeve		
		Siſteron	Siſteron, Apt, Forcalquir — N. W.	
		Apt		
		Forcalquir		
		Venaiſſin	Avignon, Carpentras — ſubject to the Pope	
		Carpentras		
		Orange	Orange on the Rhone, now ſubject to France.	

Iſlands—Porquerollos, Porteros, Levant, St. Honorat, and St. Margaret.

Pro.	Parts	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.	Port Towns.
Languedoc	Upper	Thouloſan		Toulouſe	
		Albigeois		Alby	
		Foix		Foix	
		Rouſſillon		Perpignan	
		Lauragais		Lauragais	
		Narbonne		Narbonne	
	Lower	Beziers		Beziers	
		Niſmes		Niſmes, Montpelier	
		Cevennes, containing	Gevaudan	Mende	
			Vivarais	Vivirs	
			Velay	Puy	
Gaſcoigne	S. of the Adour	On the Adour N. of the Adour	Armagnac	Augh, or Aux	
			L'Elands	D'Acq's, or Dax	
			Albert	Albert	
			Condomois	Condom	
			Guare	Verdun	
		On the Adour	Labour, or Baſquets	Bayonne	
			Gaſcony Proper	Ayre	
			Eſterac	Mirande	
			Cominges	Lombes	
			Lower Navarre	St. Palais	
			Soule	Mauleons	
			Bearne	Pau	
			Bigorre	Terbe	
			Conſerans	St. Lizir.	

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Francs, or *Freemen*, a German nation, reſtleſs and enterpriſing, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repreſs them, they were permitted to ſettle in the country by treaty. By its ſituation, it is the moſt compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpoſe both of power and commerce; and ſince the beginning of the 15th century, the inhabitants have availed themſelves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is, in general, mild and wholeſome; but ſome late authors think it is not nearly ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged, that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intenſely cold, and the inhabitants not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent ſoil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almoſt every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher fla-

vour

vour than thoſe of England, but neither the paſturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts parch the ground, and deſtroy the verdure, and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts as ſerve to ſubſiſt the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French ſoil is, that the inhabitants having been uncertain of enjoying the full fruits of their labour, have not applied themſelves ſufficiently to agriculture.*

The French have of late endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſed premiums for its improvements, as in England; but thoſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of general utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruit of his labour. No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe, by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniences of life. Of their canals and mineral waters diſtinct notice will be hereafter taken.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are, the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauge, which divide Lorraine from Burgundy and Alſace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compte from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor, in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its courſe north and north-weſt, being with all its windings, from its ſource to the ſea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the ſouth-weſt to Lyons, and then runs on due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne riſes in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its courſe, firſt north-eaſt, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, ſoon after its riſe, runs to the north-weſt, viſiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the Engliſh channel at Havre. To theſe we may add, the Soane, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which riſes near Havre de Grace, and diſcharges itſelf into the bay of Biſcay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which riſes in Switzerland is the eaſtern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moſelle and the Sarte in its paſſage. The Somme which runs north-weſt through Picardy, and falls into the Engliſh channel below Abbeville. The Var, which riſes in the Alps, and runs ſouth, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, weſt of Nice. The Adour runs from eaſt to weſt, through Gaſcoigne, and falls into the bay of Biſcay, below Bayonne.

The vaſt advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which ariſes to France from thoſe rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680: it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the ſpeedier paſſage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immenſe expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not anſwered the end in view. By the canal of Calais, travellers eaſily paſs by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a courſe of eighteen leagues, to the immenſe benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpreſſibly commodious and beneficial.

* It is computed that of this extenſive kingdom, only 36 millions [redacted] are cultivated.

Few

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomleſs. There is another at Iſſoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Beſſe, in which if you throw a ſtone, it cauſes a noiſe like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS.] The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred for ſalubrity to all others in France. The beſt judges think, however, that the cures performed by them, are more owing to their accidental ſucceſs, with ſome great perſons, and the dryneſs of the air and ſoil, than to the virtue of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alſace are ſaid to cure the palſy, weak nerves, and the ſtone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are ſeveral wholſome minerals and baths, to which people reſort, as to the Engliſh baths, at ſpring and autumn. Forges, in Normandy, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and thoſe of St. Amand cure the gravel and obſtructions. It would be endleſs to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable ſprings: but there is one near Aigne in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taſte, yet poſſeſſes a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die inſtantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Languedoc is ſaid to contain veins of gold and ſilver. Alſace has mines of ſilver and copper, but they are too expenſive to be wrought. Alabaſter, black marble, jaſper and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of Oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the beſt drab-cloths; and in the province of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone. Some excellent turquoiſes (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-ſtone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] France abounds in excellent roots, and in all kinds of ſeaſoning and ſallads. The province of Gaſtenois produces great quantities of ſaffron, 1,600,000 acres are laid out in vineyards. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Gaſcony, Bourdeaux, and other provinces of France, are ſo well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that though they differ very ſenſibly in their taſte and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly thoſe of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontack, Hermitage, and Frontiniac; and there are few conſtitutions, be they ever ſo valetudinary, to which ſome one or other of them is not adapted. Oak, elm, aſh, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but it is ſaid, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of ſalt is made at Rhee, and about Rochfort, on the coaſt of Saintoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which, when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-aſhes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at preſent far inferior to the Engliſh both in the management and diſpoſition of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, except wolves. Their horſes, black cattle, and ſheep, are far inferior to the Engliſh; nor is the wool of their ſheep ſo fine. The hair and ſkins of the chamois, or mountain goats, are very valuable. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and thoſe of England, but that the former is not ſo well ſerved, even on the ſea-coaſts, with ſalt water fiſh.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts of France, are thoſe of Orleans, which contain 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, aſh, &c. and the foreſt of Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchiſmoir is a foreſt of tall, ſtraight timber, of 4000 trees. Beſides theſe, large numbers of woods, ſome of them deſerving the name of foreſts, lie in different provinces; but too remote from ſea-carriage to be of much national utility.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the lateſt and beſt calculations, France contains at preſent about 24,000,000 of inhabitants. It was lately ſuppoſed by ſome ſpeculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline: but, upon an accurate inveſtigation, the reverſe appeared to be the fact; though this country certainly loſt a great number of valuable inhabitants by the revocation of the edict of Nantes*.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower than their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations in general from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty; the peaſantry in general are remarkably ordinary, and are beſt deſcribed by being contraſted with thoſe of the ſame rank in England. The nobility and gentry accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack-boots, their huge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb-bridle in that exerciſe, and accomodate themſelves to the Engliſh manner. The land-owners were (till of late) as jealous of their game as they are in England, and equally niggardly of it to their inferiors. A few of the French princes of the blood, and nobility, are more magnificent in their palaces and equipages than any of the Engliſh; but the other ranks of life loſe by a compariſon with the riches, elegance, and opulence of the middling ranks in England.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant foible; and they are perhaps the only people who have derived great utility from this weakneſs. It confirms their ſenſe of honour, ſupports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inſpires other nations. This character, however, is conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; for the common ſoldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroiſm. Hence it has been obſerved, with great juſtice, of the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow if their officers will lead. This ſame principle of vanity is of admirable uſe to government, becauſe the lower ranks, when they ſee their ſuperiors elated, as in the war of 1756 with England, under the moſt diſgraceful loſſes never think that they are unfortunate; and from thence proceeds the paſſive ſubmiſſion of the French under all their calamities.

This lively people affect freedom and wit; but faſhionable dreſſes and diverſions engroſs too much of their converſation. Their diverſions are much the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and in the ladies

* In the year 1598, Henry IV. who was a Proteſtant, and juſtly ſtyled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, paſſed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to the proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; but this edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the ſucceeding perſecutions, drove that people to England, Holland, and other Proteſtant countries, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that perſecuted them.

it is ſometimes kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are ſeldom attended with that criminality which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indicate; nor are the huſbands ſo indifferent, as ſtrangers are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are exceſſively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world they bear adverſity and reduction of circumſtances with the beſt grace; though in proſperity many of them are apt to be inſolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and inſtructive companion, and indeed the moſt rational ſpecies of all the French gentry.

The French are eminently diſtinguiſhed for their politeneſs and good manners, which may be traced, though in different proportions, through every rank, from the greateſt of the nobility to the loweſt mechanic: and it has been remarked as a very ſingular phænomenon, that politeneſs, which in every other country is confined to people of a certain rank in life, ſhould here pervade every ſituation and profeſſion. Indeed, the poliſhed mildneſs of French manners, the gay and ſociable turn of the nation, and the affable and eaſy conduct of maſters to their ſervants, in ſome degree ſupplied the deficiencies, and corrected the errors of their late government and rendered the condition of the common people in France, but particularly at Paris, better than in ſeveral other countries in Europe. The French have been much cenſured for inſincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which throws a ſuſpicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable characters, and a great number of inſtances of generoſity and diſintereſtedneſs may be found amongſt them.

It is doing the French no more than juſtice to acknowledge, that, as they are themſelves polite, ſo they have given a poliſh to the ferocious manners, and even the virtues of other nations. They have long poſſeſſed the lead in taſte, faſhion, and dreſs; but it ſeems now to be in the wane, and they themſelves think very favourably of the Engliſh. This alteration of opinion has not, however, entirely taken its riſe from their wits and learned men, and ſtill leſs from their courtiers, or the middle ranks of life. The ſuperior orders of men in France are of a very different caſt from thoſe below them. They ſee with indignation the frivolouſneſs of their court; and, however complying they may appear in public, when retired they keep themſelves ſacred from its follies. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themſelves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They ſaw during the war before the laſt, the management of their armies, their finances, and fleets, with ſilent indignation, and their reſearches were favourable to the Engliſh. The concluſion of the peace of Fontainbleau, and the viſits which they have ſince paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themſelves have fallen in with it; and, what ſome years ago would have been thought incredible, people of faſhion in France now ſtudy the Engliſh language, and imitate them in their cuſtoms, amuſements, dreſs, and buildings. They imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addiſon, Hume, Robertſon, Richardſon, and many others of the laſt and preſent century, are ſacred among the French of any education; and, to ſay the truth, the writings of ſuch men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raiſe the name of Great Britain to that degree in which it has been held of late by foreign nations; and to render our language more univerſal, and even a neceſſary ſtudy among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of the manners and cuſtoms of the French, without giving a more minute view of ſome ſtriking peculiarities among that whim-

cal people in private life, and this from the remarks of a late ingenious traveller, who was alſo diſtinguiſhed by various other productions in polite literature.

" The natural levity of the French, ſays Smollet, is reinforced by the moſt prepoſterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the moſt frivolous purſuits. A Frenchman is by ſome prieſt or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to ſay his prayers in a language he does not underſtand. He learns to dance and to fence by the maſters of thoſe ſciences. He becomes a complete connoiſſeur in dreſſing hair, and in adorning his own perſon, under the hand and inſtructions of his barber and valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or the fiddle, he is altogether irreſiſtible. But he piques himſelf upon being poliſhed above the natives of any other country by his converſation with the fair ſex. In the courſe of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a ſet of phraſes, ridiculous even to a proverb; and theſe he throws out indiſcriminately to all women without diſtinction, in the exerciſe of that kind of addreſs which is here diſtinguiſhed by the name of gallantry. It is an exerciſe, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in conſequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their cuſtoms and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thouſand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whoſe time hath been ſpent in making more valuable acquiſitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bed-chamber while ſhe is in bed, reaches her whatever ſhe wants, airs her ſhift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the diſtribution of her patches, and adviſes where to lay on the paint. If he viſits her when ſhe is dreſſed, and perceives the leaſt impropriety in her coiffure, he inſiſts upon adjuſting it with his own hands. If he ſees a curl, or even a ſingle hair amiſs, he produces his comb, his ſciſſars, and pomatum, and ſets it to rights with the dexterity of a profeſſed frizeur. He ſquires her to every place ſhe viſits, either on pleaſure or buſineſs; and, by dedicating his whole time to her, renders himſelf neceſſary to her occaſions. In ſhort, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petit-maître* is the moſt impertinent; and they are all *petits-maîtres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garçon barbier* (barber's boy) covered with meal, who ſtruts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

" A Frenchman will ſooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the ſoldiers in France wear a long queue; and this ridiculous foppery has deſcended, as I ſaid before, to the loweſt claſs of people. The boy who cleans ſhoes at the corner of a ſtreet, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump; and the beggar who drives an aſs, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither ſhirt nor breeches.

" I ſhall only mention one cuſtom more, which ſeems to carry human affectation to the very fartheſt verge of folly and extravagance: that is, the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally ſuppoſed, that part of the fair ſex, in ſome other countries, make uſe of *fard* and vermillion for very different purpoſes; namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I ſhall not enquire whether it is juſt and honeſt to impoſe in this manner on mankind; if it is nor honeſt, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and ſhews at leaſt a deſire of being agreeable. But to lay it on, as the faſhion in France preſcribes to all the ladies of condition, who indeed cannot appear without this badge of diſtinction, is to diſguiſe themſelves in ſuch a manner, as to render them odious and deteſtable to every ſpectator who has the leaſt reliſh left for nature and propriety. As for the

ſard, or *white*, with which their necks and ſhoulders are plaiſtered, it may be in ſome meaſure excuſable, as their ſkins are naturally brown, or ſallow; but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the leaſt art or dexterity, not only deſtroys all diſtinction of features, but renders the aſpect really frightful, or at leaſt conveys nothing but the idea of diſguſt and averſion. Without this horrible maſk, no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite aſſembly; and it is a mark of diſtinction which none of the lower claſſes dare aſſume."

The above picture of French manners is drawn with wit and ſpirit, and is in ſome reſpects highly characteriſtic; but it is certainly not a flattering portrait, and the faults and failings of this vivacious people are too much magnified. With all their defects, the French have many good qualities, and their country affords a very agreeable reſidence on account of the great attention they pay to ſtrangers, and the general taſte for literature which prevails among thoſe in the better ranks of life. The French literati have great influence even in the gay and diſſipated city of Paris. Their opinions not only determine the merit of works of taſte and ſcience, but they have conſiderable weight with reſpect to the manners and ſentiments of people of rank, and of the public in general, and conſequently are not without effect in the meaſures of government.

DRESS.] The French dreſs of both ſexes is ſo well known, that it is needleſs to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dreſs in cities and towns is ſo variable, that it is next to impoſſible to deſcribe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their conſtantly changing their faſhions is of infinite ſervice to their manufactures. With regard to dreſs, they poſſeſs one capital ſuperiority, which is, that the cloaths of both ſexes, and their ornaments, are at leaſt one-third cheaper, than in England.

When a ſtranger arrives in Paris, he finds it neceſſary to ſend for a taylor, perruquier, hatter, ſhoemaker, and every other tradeſman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He muſt even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the riſk of his life, ſuit his cloaths to the mode of the ſeaſon. For example, though the weather ſhould be ever ſo cold, he muſt wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-ſaiſon*, without preſuming to put on a warm dreſs before the day which faſhion has fixed for that purpoſe; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuſe a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if poſſible, ſtill more ſubject to the caprices of faſhion. All their ſacks and negligees muſt be altered and new trimmed. They muſt have new caps, new laces, new ſhoes, and their hair new cut. They muſt have their taffeties for the ſummer, their flowered ſilks for the ſpring and autumn, their ſattins and damaſks for winter. The men too muſt provide themſelves with a camblet ſuit trimmed with ſilver for ſpring and autumn, with ſilk cloaths for ſummer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he muſt wear his bag-wig *à la pigeon*. This variety of dreſs is indiſpenſable for all thoſe who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar; all ranks, from the king downwards, uſe powder, and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the fopperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain without any material deviation, the old-faſhioned mode of dreſs, the large hat and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs; and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, phyſicians, and merchants, generally dreſs in black; and it has been obſerved, that the French nation, in their modes of dreſs, are in ſome meaſure governed by commercial circumſtances.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is Roman Catholic, in which their kings have been ſo conſtant, that they have obtained the title of Moſt Chriſtian; and the

pope, in his bull, gives the king of France the title of Eldeſt Son of the Church. The Gallican church has more than once attempted to ſhake off the yoke of the popes, and made a very great progreſs in the attempt during the reign of Lewis XIV. but it was defeated by the ſecret bigotry of that prince, who, while he was bullying the pope, was inwardly trembling under the power of the Jeſuits; an order now univerſally aboliſhed. Every endeavour, which they made to get free from the papal power failed of ſucceſs until the late revolution. It is, nevertheleſs, very difficult to ſay at preſent how religious matters ſtand in that country, as the affairs of the nation are not yet thoroughly ſettled. In the ſouthern parts of France, the perſecutions of the proteſtants, or, as they are called, Hugonots, who are very numerous in thoſe provinces, continued till very lately. Since their alliance with America, the proteſtants have been more encouraged, and their aſſemblies for worſhip in many places not diſturbed. We ſhall not enter into the antiquated diſputes between the Moliniſts and the Janſeniſts, or the different ſects of Quietiſts and Bourignons, and others that prevail among the Roman Catholics themſelves, or into the diſputes that prevail between the parliament and clergy about the bull Unigenitus, which advances the pope's power above that of the crown. The ſtate of religion in France previous to the late revolution is a ſtrong proof of the paſſive diſpoſition of the natives, and the bigotry of their kings, who, in complaiſance to the pope, have deprived their kingdom, as already hinted, of ſome of its moſt uſeful inhabitants. It muſt at the ſame time be owned, that the Hugonots, while they ſubſiſted in a manner as a ſeparate ſtate within France, ſhewed ſome diſpoſitions not very favourable to that deſpotic ſyſtem of government which, till very lately, was eſtabliſhed in the kingdom; and on ſome occaſions they did not diſplay much moderation in matters of religion; but, in general, their oppoſition to the rulers and court, proceeded from repeated attacks on their liberties, and the perſecutions they ſuffered.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS, BISHOPRICKS, &c.] In the whole kingdom there are 17 archbiſhops, 113 biſhops, 770 abbies for men, 317 abbies and priories for women, beſides a great number of leſſer convents, and 250 commanderies of the order of Malta. A propoſal, however, was made during the late revolution, for ſuppreſſing all the religious houſes, ſo that it is difficult now to ſay any thing concerning them. The eccleſiaſtics of all ſorts were computed at near 200,000, and their revenues at about ſix millions ſterling. The king had the power of nominating all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, and priors, and could tax the clergy without a papal licence or mandate: accordingly, not many years ſince, he demanded the twentieth penny of the clergy, and, to aſcertain that, required them to deliver in an inventory of their eſtates and incomes; to avoid which they voluntarily made an offer of the annual ſum of twelve milions of livres, over and above the uſual free gift, which they paid every five years. This demand was often repeated in a time of war.

The archbiſhop of Lyons was count and primate of France. The archbiſhop of Sens had the title of primate of France and Germany. The archbiſhop or Paris was duke and peer of the realm; and the archbiſhop of Rheims, duke and peer, and legate of the holy ſee: but as all titles are now aboliſhed, ſo conſequently are thoſe of theſe dignitaries of the church.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wiſeſt meaſures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every propoſal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He ſucceeded ſo far as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues; a circumſtance that contributed equally to his greatneſs and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. The French language, at preſent, is chiefly compoſed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay; its corner ſtones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were looſen-

ed; and in the preſent mode of writing, and expreſſing themſelves, the modern French too often abandon that grammatical ſtandard, which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, it wants the dignity and energy of the Engliſh, but is well adapted to ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion, and well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows; *Nôtre Pére qui es aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offencez. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi eſt le regne, la puiſſancè, & la gloire aux ſiécles des ſiécles.* Amen.

LEARING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immerſed in barbarity. The firſt learning they began to acquire was not of that kind which improves the underſtanding, corrects the taſte, or regulates the affections. It conſiſted in a ſubtile and quibbling logic, which was more adapted to pervert than to improve the faculties. But the ſtudy of the Greek and Roman writers, which firſt aroſe in Italy, diffuſed itſelf among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary purſuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings; among whom were Budeus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are alſo mentioned by every real ſcholar with reſpect. It was not, however, till the ſeventeeth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Françoiſe was formed for promoting this purpoſe; and though their labours, conſidered as a body, were not ſo ſucceſsful as might have been expected, ſome particular academicians have done great ſervice to letters. In fact, literary copartnerſhips are ſeldom very ſucceſsful. Of this we have a remarkable inſtance in the preſent caſe. The academy publiſhed a dictionary for improving the French language: it was generally condemned. Furetieres, a ſingle academician, publiſhes another: it meets with univerſal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterpriſes upon which he expended ſo many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign are too numerous to be mentioned. The tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deſervedly obtained a very high reputation: the firſt was diſtinguiſhed for his ſkill in moving the paſſions; the ſecond for majeſty; and both, for the ſtrength and juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhauſted the ſubjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhauſtible, and particularly in France. In works of ſatire and in criticiſm, Boileau, who, was a cloſer imitator of the ancients, poſſeſſed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the ſame extenſive and univerſal kind with Shakſpeare, equally fitted for the gay and the ſerious, the humorous and the ſublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our ſuperiors: Boſſuet, Bourdaloue, Flecheir, and Maſſillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to ſurpaſs. The genius, however, of their religion and government, is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the moſt uſeful branches of philoſophy. All the eſtabliſhments of Lewis XIV.

XIV. for the advancement of ſcience, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whoſe intereſt it is to limit the enquiries of men in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and miniſtry, who have an equal intereſt in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every ſound principle of government. The French have not therefore ſo many good writers on moral, religious, or political ſubjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced ſome great men who do honour to humanity; whoſe career no obſtacle could ſtop, whoſe freedom no government, however deſpotic, no religion, however ſuperſtitious, could curb or reſtrain. As an hiſtorian, De Thou is entitled to the higheſt praiſe: and who is ignorant of Paſcal, or of the archbiſhop of Cambray? Few men have done more ſervice to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Monteſquieu, he is an honour to human nature; he is the legiſlator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go, they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And, indeed, ſeveral writers have lately appeared in France, whoſe writings breathe ſuch ſentiments of liberty as did but ill accord with an arbitrary government; ſentiments which have made rapid progreſs among men of letters, and perſons in the higher ranks of life, and which there can be no doubt have been one conſiderable cauſe in producing the late important revolution.

In the Belles Letters and miſcellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the moſt conſiderable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher in modern times. He was the firſt who applied algebra to the ſolution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical diſcoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flouriſhed in the preſent age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert; the latter of whom, to the preciſion of a geometrician, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, the French have almoſt vied with the Engliſh in natural philoſophy. Buffon would deſerve to be reckoned among men of ſcience, were he not more remarkable for his eloquence than his philoſophy. He is to be regarded as a philoſophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his Natural Hiſtory is the firſt work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouſſin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at preſent to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuſe, for portraits and converſation-pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in moſt other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper plates have been univerſally and juſtly celebrated; but ſuch a liberal patronage has been afforded to Engliſh artiſts, that that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them alſo in the manufacture of the paper proper for ſuch impreſſions. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were our ſuperiors in architecture; though we now bid fair for ſurpaſſing them in this art.

We ſhall conclude this head with obſerving, that the French have now new-modelled the Encyclopedia, or General Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, which was drawn up by the moſt able maſters in each branch of literature, in 28 volumes in folio (ſix of which are copper-plates), under the direction of Meſſieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the moſt complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] Theſe literary inſtitutions ſuſtained a conſiderable loſs by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, who made the languages, arts, and ſciences, their particular ſtudy, and taught them all over France; but as the extinction of this body of men will probably leſſen the influence of ſuperſtition in France, there is reaſon to believe that the intereſts of real learning and ſcience will, upon the whole, be promoted by that event. It is not within the plan of this work to deſcribe the different governments and conſtitutions of every univerſity or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follow; Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Beſançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, La Fleche, Montauban, Montpellier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouſon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſbourg, Toulouſe, Tournoiſe, and Valence.

ACADEMIES.] There are eight academies in Paris, namely, three literary ones, the French Academy, that of Inſcriptions, and that of the Sciences: one of painting and ſculpture, one of architecture, and three for riding the great horſe, and other military exerciſes.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boaſt of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a moſt curious account of the ſepulchres of their kings, which have been diſcovered ſo far back as Pharamond; and ſome of them, when broke upon, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vaſt delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and ſacred; ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienna. Niſmes, however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtan age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains for the uſe of that city, and the building is freſh to this day; it conſiſts of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other ſtupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients that all ſtreams will, when confined in pipes, riſe as high as the fountain from which they proceed. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes; but the chief, are the temple of Diana; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carreè. The architecture and ſculpture of this building are ſo exquiſitely beautiful, that it enchants even the moſt ignorant; and it is ſtill entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havock of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be ſeen the remains of a palace, or Thermæ, ſuppoſed to have been built by the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame model as the baths of Dioclefian. The remains of this ancient edifice conſiſt of many arches, and within them a large ſaloon. It is fabricated of a kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is not now known, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free-ſtone and bricks.

At Arles in Provence is an obeliſk of oriental granite, 52 feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe, and all but one ſtone. Roman temples and aqueducts are frequent in France. The moſt remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne. The

paſſage

paſſage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of maſſy ſilver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the ſtory of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coëval with that great general. It would be endleſs to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Theſe are numerous; of which we ſhall mention only Paris, Liſle, and their principal ſea-ports, Breſt and Toulon.

Liſle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the moſt regular and ſtrongeſt fortification in Europe, and was the maſter-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garriſoned with above 10,000 regulars; and for its munificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of ſilk, cambric, and camblets, are very conſiderable; and its inhabitants amount to about 100,000. Every reader is acquainted with the hiſtory of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demoliſh, but it is ſtill a thorn in the ſide of the Engliſh, by being a harbour for their ſmugglers, and may now, by an article in the late treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French miniſtry may pleaſe. The reſt of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving ſouthward, we come to the Iſle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been ſo often deſcribed, that it may appear ſuperfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference which it by no means deſerves, to all the capitals in the world, in every reſpect, not excepting even population. Many of the Engliſh have been impoſed upon in this point: particularly by the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the moſt populous pariſhes about London. Another miſtake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of diſſenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not regiſter the births of their children, is very great; and many of the poorer ſort will not afford the ſmall expence of ſuch a regiſtration. Another peculiarity exiſting in London is, that moſt of the Londoners in affluent circumſtances, when they find themſelves conſumptive, or otherwiſe indiſpoſed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the regiſters are more exact and acceſſible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and ſtrict, is far more eaſily aſcertained than that of London; and by the beſt accounts, it does not exceed 7 or 800,000, which is far ſhort of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous pariſhes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the univerſity, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are ſhewy, and ſome of its ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatues; but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life, and the ſolid enjoyments of ſociety. Without entering into more minute diſquiſitions, Paris, it muſt be owned, is the paradiſe of ſplendor and diſſipation. The tapeſtry of the Gobelines * is unequalled for beauty and richneſs. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itſelf; and

* One *Goblei*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the firſt who ſettled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the houſe has retained his name ever ſince; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, eſtabliſhed that valuable manufactory.

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the inſtitution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elſewhere. The Tuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or, as it is called, Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are ſhewn, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild-hall, and the hoſpital for the invalids, are ſuperb to the higheſt degree. The city of Paris is ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French nobleſſe at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and ſo do their convents and churches. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedneſs, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half ſo large as the Thames at London: it is too far diſtant from the ſea for the purpoſes of navigation, and furniſhed with boats only for the purpoſe of paſſing from one ſide of the river to the other, in places diſtant from the bridges. The ſtreets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur, though in reality there is more ſhow than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers are moſtly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who viſit that city; and in truth, the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendancy over other nations is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their politeneſs and magnificence, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a compariſon with London, in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanlineſs of their ſtreets, elegance of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is ſaid diſagrees with ſtrangers, as do likewiſe their ſmall wines. In the houſes of Paris moſt of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone ſtairs, the want of wainſcotting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of ſtone, are, however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcotting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with teſter and curtains; but bugs are here a moſt intolerable nuiſance, which frequently oblige ſtrangers to ſleep on the floor, during the exceſſive heat of the ſummer. Their ſhops are but poorly ſtored with goods; and the ſhop-keepers and tradeſmen, an indolent, loitering people, ſeldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dreſs, of velvet cap, ſilk night-gown, and Morocco ſlippers; but when they intend a viſit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the reſemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contraſt between this claſs of people and thoſe of the ſame rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do moſt of the drudgery buſineſs of the ſhop, while the huſband loiters about, talks of the great, of faſhions and diverſions, and the invincible force of their armies. The ſplendour of the grand monarque uſed alſo to be with them a favourite topic of converſation, previous to the change in their political ſyſtem. The Pariſians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is conſidered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butchers meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes, and ſmall wine.

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The Pariſians ſcarcely know the uſe of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris is ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, ſeldom happen; and ſtrangers, from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, meet with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets are patrolled at night by horſe and foot; ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender can eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſit the publicans preciſely at the hour of twelve at night to ſee that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the ſame excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, which was uſed till of late, prevented robberies in that kingdom; but for the ſame reaſon, when robberies did happen, they were always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleaſant, and contain a number of fine ſeats, ſmall towns and villages; ſome of them, being ſcattered on the edges of lofty mountains riſing from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Verſailles, which ſtands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expenſive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furniſh, is properly a collection of buildings, each of exquiſite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and ſublime of that art. The gardens, and waterworks (which are ſupplied by means of prodigious engines acroſs the Seine at Marli, about three miles diſtance), are aſtoniſhing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a ſtranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Moudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taſte and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amuſement of a luxurious court; but ſome of them are in a ſhameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanlineſs.

Breſt is a ſmall, but very ſtrong town, upon the Engliſh channel, with a moſt ſpacious and fine fortified road and harbour, the beſt and ſafeſt in the kingdom; yet its entrance is difficult, by reaſon of many rocks lying under water. At Breſt is a court of admiralty, and academy for ſea-affairs, docks, and magazines for all kinds of naval ſtores, rope-yards, ſtore-houſes, &c. inſomuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy-royal of France, and it is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a ſea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour, for the reception and protection of the navy-royal. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ſhips paſs from one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour. Its arſenal, eſtabliſhed alſo by that king, has a particular ſtorehouſe for each ſhip of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being ſeparately laid up. Here are ſpacious workſhops for blackſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lockſmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of ſtone, is 320 toiſes or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtorehouſes, and contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. juſtly ſtyled the Great, the famous Colbert, miniſter to Lewis XIV. may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illuſtrious a figure as a trading, as ſhe did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally poſſeſs that undaunted perſeverance which is neceſſary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, underſtand them better. It is to be conſidered at the ſame time, that France, by

her ſituation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of great inland and neighbouring trade, which enriches her, and makes her the moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe. Her natural commodities have already been enumerated; to which may be added, her manufactures of ſalt-petre, ſilk, embroidery, ſilver, ſtuffs, tapeſtry, cambrics, lawns, fine laces, fine ſerges and ſtuffs, velvets, brocades, paper, brandy, which is diſtilled from wine, a prodigious variety of toys, and other articles; many of which are ſmuggled into Great Britain, for which they are paid in ready money.

The ſilk manufacture was introduced into France ſo late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandſon Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the Proteſtants, and the ruinous war maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000; and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Proteſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpecially at Abbeville, are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of England and Holland, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country. It is a doubtful point whether the crown of France was a loſer by its ceſſion of Canada and part of Louiſiana at the late peace. But the moſt valuable part of Hiſpaniola in the Weſt Indies, which ſhe poſſeſſes by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a moſt improveable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt Indies ſhe likewiſe poſſeſſes the moſt important ſugar iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Bartholomew, Deſeada, and Marigalante. Her poſſeſſions in North America, are only a ſmall tract upon the Miſſiſſippi.

The French poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, are not very conſiderable; though had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engroſſed more territory and revenues than are now in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their Eaſt India company never did much. At preſent (ſays Mr. Anderſon), 'her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Straſburgh—To the Netherlands, through Liſle—To Spain (a moſt profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the weſtern ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more eſpecially reſpecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marſeilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very conſiderable. The negro trade from Guinea ſupplies her ſugar colonies, beſides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence.'

In the year 1739, France may be ſaid to have been in the zenith of her commerce. Favoured by Spain and dreaded by moſt of the other powers of Europe, her fleets covered the occean; but ſhe truſted too much to her own ſelf-importance. Cardinal de Fleury, who then directed her affairs, took no care to protect her trade by proper naval armaments; ſo that the greater it was, it became the more valuable prey to the Engliſh when war broke out. One great diſadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profeſſion of a merchant is not ſo honourable as in England and ſome other countries, ſo that the French nobility think it below them; which is the reaſon that the church, the law, and the army, are ſo full of that order. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a parti-

a particular mark to diſtinguiſh their reſpective pieces; which muſt be very embarraſſing, eſpecially to ſtrangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] The inſtitution of public trading companies to Canada or New France, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, formerly coſt the French crown immenſe ſums; but we know none of them now ſubſiſting, though no doubt their Weſt India trade, which is ſtill very conſiderable, eſpecially in ſugar, is under proper regulations, preſcribed by their councils of commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In ſpeaking upon this article, we muſt rather confine ourſelves to a hiſtory of the paſt conſtitution and government of this kingdom, than preſume to give any circumſtantial account of them at preſent. The late changes in theſe have been ſo great and remarkable, that, as matters are not yet fully ſettled, we muſt defer what we have to ſay on that head, till we come to treat of the hiſtory of the nation. The conſtitution of France in feudal times, was very unfavourable to monarchy; but the oppreſſions of the great land-holders, by degrees, grew ſo irkſome to the ſubjects, that they preferred the monarchical to the ariſtocratical government. Ariſtocracy, however, ſtill ſubſiſted in ſome degree to the beginning of the laſt century, chiefly through the neceſſity which the Hugonots or proteſtants were under to have princes of the blood, and men of great quality, for their leaders; but Richlieu in the time of Lewis XIII. gave it a mortal blow; and all the civil diſputes in France ſince, have been among great men for power and places, and between the kings and their parliaments; but the latter were ſeldom or never attended with any ſanguinary effects.

The parliament of France has no analogy with that of Great Britain. It was originally inſtituted to ſerve as a kind of law aſſiſtant to the aſſembly of the ſtates, which was compoſed of the great peers and landholders of the kingdom; and ever ſince it continued to be a law and at laſt a money court; and the members had the courage of late to claim a kind of a negative power to the royal edicts, which they pretended could be of no validity till regiſtered by them. His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty had often tried to invalidate their acts, and to intimidate their perſons; but, deſpotic as he was, he never ventured to inflict any farther puniſhment than a ſlight baniſhment or impriſonment, for their moſt provoking acts of diſobedience.

The kingdom of France was divided into thirty governments, over each of which was appointed a king's lieutenant-general, a ſuperintendant, who pretty much reſembled the lord-lieutenants in England, but their executive powers were far more extenſive. Diſtributive juſtice in France was adminiſtered by parliaments, chambers of accounts, courts of aid, preſidial courts, generalities, elections, and other courts. The parliaments were in number fifteen; thoſe of Paris, Toulouſe, Rouen, Grenoble, Bourdeaux, Dijon, Aix, Rheims, Pau, Metz, Baſançon, Douay, Perpignan, Colmar, and Arras. Several of theſe parliaments, however, united in one. The parliament of Paris was the chief, and took the lead in all national buſineſs. It was divided into ten chambers. The grand chamber was appropriated chiefly for the trial of peers. The Tournelle Civile judged in all matters of property above the value of 1000 livres. The Tournelle Criminelle received and decided appeals from inferior courts in criminal caſes. Beſides theſe three capital chambers, there were five of requeſts, for receiving the depoſitions of witneſſes, and determining cauſes, pretty much in the ſame manner as our bills and anſwers in chancery and the exchequer.

The next court of judicature in France was the chamber of accounts; where all matters of public finances were examined, treaties of peace and grants regiſtered, and the vaſſalages due from the royal fiefs received. The chambers were in number twelve, and held in the cities of Paris, Rouen, Dijon, Nantes, Montpelier, Grenoble, Aix, Pau, Blois, Liſle, Aire, and Dole.

The third court of judicature was the court of aid, where all matters that relate to the royal revenue, and the raiſing of money, were determined.

The fourth were the preſidial courts, and compoſed of judges for determining matters in appeal from magiſtrates of little towns and villages.

The next court was the generalities, who proportioned the taxes to be raiſed in their diſtricts, according to the ſum that is appointed to be levied. They likewiſe took cognizance of matters relating to the crown-lands, and certain branches of the revenue. Theſe courts were in number twenty-three, each conſiſting of twenty-three perſons; and they were diſtributed over the kingdom for the more convenient diſpatch of buſineſs.

Subject to theſe generalities, were the courts of elections, which ſettled the ſmaller proportions of taxes to be paid by pariſhes and inferior diſtricts, and how much each individual in the ſame was to pay. This was done by a collector, who returned the aſſeſſment to the court of generalities. Beſides the above courts, the French had intendants of juſtice, police, and finances, whoſe powers, when properly executed, were of great ſervice to the peace of the community.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the ſoil in France; her numerous manufactures and extenſive commerce, her great cities, numerous towns, ſea-ports, rivers, and canals; the cheapneſs of proviſions, wines, and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets ſhe has ſent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their ſprightlineſs and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude, that the French is the moſt powerful nation, and her people the moſt opulent and happy in Europe. But this is not the caſe; for the French reſources, by a wrong application, have often proved ruinous to the people. The moſt obvious cauſes of this, are the ambition and vanity of their kings and leading men, which led them into ſchemes of univerſal dominion, to promote the aggrandiſement of their name, and the enſlaving of Chriſtendom. Their wars, which they ſometimes carried on againſt one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the ſubject under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When theſe failed, other methods, more deſpotic and unwarrantable, ſuch as raiſing and reducing the value of money as it ſuited their own purpoſes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppreſſions were adopted, which gave the finiſhing blow to public credit, and ſhook the foundations of trade, commerce, and induſtry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we conſider the motives of theſe wars, a deſire to enſlave and render miſerable the nations around them, that man muſt be devoid of humanity, whoſe breaſt is not raiſed with indignation at the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen ſacrifices to their ambition. It appears too plain, from their late attack upon Corſica, that their own misfortunes had not taught them wiſdom or humanity; for while they thus graſped after foreign conqueſt, their own country exhibited a picture of miſery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a moſt diſmal and ſolitary appearance. The ſhops are mean beyond deſcription; and the paſſengers, who ſaunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty ſtreets, appear to be chiefly compoſed of prieſts and devotees, paſſing to and from maſs, hair-dreſſers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the obſervation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it poſſible to mention a people more indigent than theſe citizens, we might deſcribe the farmers and peaſantry. We have in another place mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and moſt extenſive plains

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produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidſt this profuſion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exiſt upon the gleaning, and his cattle, which are ſeldom numerous, pick a ſubſiſtence in the ſummer months from the ſkirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, diſpirited, and diſtreſſed, exhibits a ſpectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to ſee him plowing the ground with a lean cow, aſs, and a goat yoked together, excites in an Engliſh traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled—he forgets the country, while he feels for the man.

Many of the taxes and revenues in France were let out for a time to the beſt bidder, or as it is there called, farmed; and theſe harpies, the farmers general, and their underlings, made no ſcruple of fleecing the people moſt unmercifully; and the reſidue, if any did remain, went to ſatisfy the cravings of a numerous clergy, who in their turn were obliged, as well as the laity, to advance the government immenſe ſums, under the names of tenths and free gifts, excluſive of which, they were taxed with a certain ſum, to be paid annually.

Revenues.] It is not eaſy to ſay any thing certain concerning the revenues of a prince who till of late commanded the purſes of all his ſubjects. In 1716, the whole ſpecie of France, in gold and ſilver, was computed to be about ſeventeen millions ſterling; and though the crown was then doubly a bankrupt, being in debt about 100 millions ſterling, or 2000 milions of livres, yet by laying hold of almoſt all the current money in the kingdom, and by arbitrarily raiſing or lowering the value of coins, in four years time the duke regent of France publiſhed a general ſtate of the public debts, by which it appeared that the king ſcarcely owed 340 millions of livres. This being done by a national robbery, we can form no idea but that of deſpotiſm, of the means by which ſo great a reduction was effected. The French court has not ſince that time bluſhed to own, as towards the concluſion of the former war, and alſo in 1769, that their king was bankrupt; and his miniſters have purſued meaſures pretty much ſimilar to thoſe practiſed by the regent, to recruit the royal finances.

The following ſtate of the revenues and expences of France for 1787 is extracted from an account printed by order of the king.

REVENUE.	Livres.
General	574,000,000
Particular	32,000,000
Islands.	
Dominique	6,940,000
Martinique	1,100,000
Guadaloupe	900,000
Cayenne	60,000
Total	615,000,000
Or, 28,000,000*l.* ſterling.	

EXPENCES OF GOVERNMENT.	Livres.
Intereſt of national debt	211,000,000
Army and Ordnance	105,000,000
Navy	45,200,000
Penſions	26,000,000
Sundries, viz. encouragement of commerce, agriculture, &c. &c.	347,800,000
Total	735,000,000
Or, 33,400,000*l.* ſterling.	

From this account it appears, that the revenue of France amounted in the year 1787, to 28,000,000*l.* ſterling, (allowing 22 livres to the pound ſterling) and the expences were 33,400,000*l.* ſterling, of which 9,590,000*l.* ſterling is the intereſt of national debt, ſo that the expences exceeded the national income by 5,454,000*l.* The collection of this revenue coſt 2,700,000*l.* which is at the rate of about 10½*l.* per cent.

Their taxes were raiſed by the taille, or land-tax; the tallion, which the nobility were obliged to pay as well as the commons, is only another land-tax; by aids, which we call cuſtoms on merchandiſe: by gabels, which is a tax upon ſalt; by a capitation, or poll-tax; by the tenths of eſtates and employments; by the ſale of all offices of juſtice; by confiſcations and forfeitures; and by a tenth, or free-gift of the

the clergy, excluſive of the annual ſum of twelve millions of livres, which that body of late advanced to the king.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particularly that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better underſtood than in France. Beſides other methods for cultivating it, there is a royal military academy eſtabliſhed for training up 500 young gentlemen, in the ſeveral branches of this great art. In time of peace the crown of France maintained 228,497 men, but at a very ſmall comparative expence, the pay of the common men being little more than two-pence half-penny per day. In a time of war 400,000 have been brought into the field; but thoſe that are raiſed from the militia are very indifferent troops. In 1784, the ſtanding military force amounted to 212,924. In the reign of Lewis XIV. the French had at one time 100 ſhips of the line, which was almoſt equal to the marine force of all Europe beſides. The French have, however, at ſea been generally defeated by the Engliſh. The engagement at La Hogue, which happened in 1692, gave a blow to the French marine, which it was long before it recovered. The late king Lewis XV. has more than once made prodigious efforts towards re-eſtabliſhing his navy; but his officers and ſeamen were ſo much inferior to thoſe of England, that ſhe ſeemed, during the war of 1756, to have built ſhips of force for the ſervice of Great Britain, ſo frequent were the captures made by the Engliſh. However, after the commencement of hoſtilities between Great Britain and France, on account of the conduct of the latter in aſſiſting the revolted American colonies, it has appeared that the French navy is become more formidable than at any preceding period, their miniſtry have exerted their utmoſt efforts to eſtabliſh a powerful marine. The preſent navy of France conſiſts of about 100 ſhips of the line, beſides a great number of frigates.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] The title aſſumed by the French king is ſimply, king of France and Navarre; and by way of compliment he is called his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty. The national aſſembly have choſen this ſhort title for their monarch, *The King of the French.* His arms are three fleurs-de-lis, or, in a field argent, ſupported by two angels in the habits of Levites, having each of them a banner in his hand, with the ſame arms. The motto is *Lilia non laborant neque nent.*

About the year 1349, Hubert, the laſt count of Dauphiny, being accidentally the occaſion of his ſon's death, annexed that country to the crown of France, upon condition that the eldeſt ſon of France ſhould be, for the time to come, ſtyled Dauphin.

The French nobility were of four kinds; firſt, the princes of the blood; ſecondly, dukes and counts, peers of France; thirdly, the ordinary nobility; fourthly, the nobility lately made, or thoſe made in the preſent reign. The firſt prince of the blood is the perſon who ſtands next to the crown after the king's ſons. The knights of the Holy Ghoſt were ranked among the higher nobility; as alſo the governors and lieutenants-general of provinces.

In France there were ſeveral orders; *firſt*, that "*of St. Michael*," inſtituted in 1469 by L[illegible] XI. originally compoſed of thirty-ſix knights, but afterwards enlarged to a hu[illegible]d. It is generally conferred on artiſts, phyſicians, magiſtrates, &c. they wear a black watered ribbon, ſaſh-ways over the right ſhoulder, to which is pendant a medallion of the ſame figure, with that deſcribed in the order of the Holy Ghoſt, enamelled green. Their badge is a golden oval medallion, in which is St. Michael trampling the dragon under his feet. A perſon muſt be a knight of this order before he can enter into the *ſecond* "*of the Holy Ghoſt*," which was founded in 1579 by Henry III. and is compoſed of a hundred perſons excluſive of the ſovereign, and conferred only on princes of the blood, and perſons of the higheſt rank. All are to be papiſts, and, except the 14 commanders, which conſiſt of cardinals, prelates,

lates, and the officers of the order, are all to prove the nobility of their deſcent for above 100 yèars. The Dauphin is received in both orders on the day of his birth. The badge is a ſilver ſtar or croſs of eight points, with a fleur-de-lis on each angle, and a dove, the emblem of the Holy Ghoſt, in the centre, embroidered on the left ſide of the outer garment as the ſtar of our knight of the Garter is, and a ſky-blue watered ribband ſaſh ways, over the right ſhoulder, to which is pendant a medallion of the figure of the ſtar, enamelled white, with fleurs-de-lis, or, at the great angles, having a dove on one ſide, and St. Michael with the dragon on the other. *Third*, the order "*of St. Louis*," which was inſtituted in the year 1693 by Lewis XIV. merely for military merit, and is worn by almoſt every officer, and even ſubalterns. The firſt claſs conſiſts of 40 knights, who are ſtyled *Chevaliers du Grand Croix*, and they wear a ſtar, with the badge on the left ſide of their garment: the ſecond claſs are 80 in number, ſtyled *Chevaliers Commandrins*, &c. but have no ſtar: the third claſs is unlimited: they wear the badge at the button-hole of their coat; the badge is the image of St. Louis in armour, holding in his left hand a crown of thorns, and in his right, a crown of laurel, with the inſcription *Ludovicus Magnus inſtituit anno* 1693; on the reverſe, a ſword erect, the point through a chaplet of laurel, bound with a white ribband, enamelled with this motto *Bellicæ virtutis præmium*. The knights of the firſt two claſſes have penſions, and the order gives them the privileges of the *Nobleſſe*, but doth not ennoble the family. As of this order all muſt be papiſts, Lewis XV. inſtituted the order of *Military Merit* in the year 1759, in favour of the proteſtant officers of foreign regiments in the ſervice of France. In all other reſpects the ſtatutes are the ſame with thoſe of the order of St. Lewis. There are two Chevaliers du Grand Croix, four of the ſecond claſs, and an unlimited number of ordinary knights. The badge of the order is a croſs of eight points, enamelled white, on the one ſide a ſword in pale, with the motto, *Pro virtute bellica*, and on the reverſe a chaplet of laurel within this inſcription, *Ludovicus* XV. *inſtituit anno* 1759. The order of *St. Lazare*, revived by Henry IV. in 1607, and united to that of *Notre Dame de Mount Carmel*, hath fallen into diſrepute, but ſtill continues, and conſiſts of 100 knights under a grand-maſter: the badge is a croſs of eight points, in the angles four fleurs-de-lis, with the Virgin Mary and her child Jeſus in the centre of it.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly intereſting to a Britiſh reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæſar, about forty-eight years before Chriſt. Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the downfal of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued, but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themſelves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. Theſe Salii had a rule, which the reſt of the Franks are ſaid to have adopted, and which has been by the modern Franks applied to the ſucceſſion of the throne, to exclude all females from the inheritance of ſovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic Law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after eſtabliſhing their power, and reducing the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to comfirm their privileges,

allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481, and was baptized, and introduced Christianity in the year 496. The mind of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the Passion and the Death of Christ; and insensible of the beneficial consequences of the mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervour, "Had I been present with my valiant Franks, I would have revenged his injuries." But though he publicly professed to acknowledge the truth of the gospel, the divine precepts which it inculcated were but little respected by the aspiring barbarians; he calmly assassinated all the princes of the Merovingian race; and, though the only monarch in the christian world free from the stain or imputation of heresy, was perpetually employed in the aggrandisement of his dominions by the violation of every moral and religious duty. From this period the French history exhibits a series of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars. The first race of their kings, prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and, about the year 900, obliged the French to yield up Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that country in almost perpetual wars with England, for whom it was not an equal match, notwithstanding its numbers, and the assistanee it received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown in two respects: in the first place, it carried off thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king: in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of many of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, their expeditions to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the empire

of Germany, but loſt the imperial crown; Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain, being choſen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain near Calais, where they and their attendants diſplayed their magnificence with ſuch emulation and profuſe expence, as procured it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with ſuch exerciſes and paſtimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than ſerious buſineſs occupied both courts during eighteen days that they continued together *. Francis made ſome dazzling expeditions againſt Spain, but ſuffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuſe his power; by which he diſobliged the conſtable of Bourbon, the greateſt of his ſubjects, who joined in a confederacy againſt him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to diſhonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of thoſe conditions was afterwards the ſource of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithſtanding the variety of diſagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flouriſhing condition. Francis I. was ſucceeded by his ſon, Henry II. who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was ſo well ſerved by the duke of Guiſe, that though he loſt the battle of St. Quintin, againſt the Spaniards and the Engliſh, he retook Calais from the latter, who never ſince had any footing in France. He married his ſon, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this ſcheme he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Francis II. a weak, ſickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whoſe power was entirely engroſſed by a prince of the houſe of Guiſe, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engroſſment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a ſtrong oppoſition againſt the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catherine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guiſes, the confederacy, who had adopted the cauſe of Hugonotiſm, was broken in pieces, when the ſudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under ſentence of death for a conſpiracy againſt the court; but the queen-mother ſaved him, to balance the intereſt of the Guiſes; ſo that the ſole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her ſecond ſon, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued ſeries of diſſimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke

* The French and Engliſh hiſtorians deſcribe the pomp of this interview, and the various ſpectacles, with great minuteneſs. One circumſtance mentioned by the marechal de Fleuranges, who was preſent, and which appears ſingular in the preſent age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," ſays he, "the French and Engliſh wreſtlers made their appearance, and wreſtled in preſence of the kings "and the ladies; and as there were many ſtout "wreſtlers there, it afforded excellent paſtime; but "as the king of France had neglected to bring any "wreſtlers out of Bretagne, the Engliſh gained the "prize.—After this, the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together, "and the king of England ſeizing the king of France "by the collar, ſaid, *My brother, I muſt wreſtle "with you*, and endeavoured once or twice to trip "up his heels; but the king of France, who was a "dexterous wreſtler, twiſted him round, and threw "him on the earth with prodigious violence. The "king of England wanted to renew the combat, but "was prevented." Memoirs de Fleuranges, 12mo. Paris, 1753. p. 329.

of Guiſe, who was the ſcourge of the Proteſtants, was aſſaſſinated by one Poltrot, at the ſiege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjuſtly thought to have been inſtigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the proteſtant party. Three civil wars ſucceeded. At laſt the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Proteſtant, and the French king's ſiſter. The heads of the Proteſtants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all, if poſſible, in one night. This project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day 1572. The king himſelf aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The ſigns for the inhuman ſlaughter of ſo many thouſands, was to be made by ſtriking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect amidſt the general carnage ſome few moments ſhould be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to reſt, when he was arouſed by the noiſe of the aſſaſſins who had ſurrounded his houſe. A German named Beſme entered his chamber, and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever diſtinguiſhed him. Incapable of reſiſtance from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to aſſaſſinate him, with an undiſmayed countenance, he had ſcarce uttered the words, "young man, reſpect theſe grey hairs, nor ſtain them with blood," when Beſme plunged his ſword into his boſom, and with his barbarous aſſociates threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guiſe contemplated it in ſilence, but Henry, count d'Angouleſme, natural brother to Charles, ſpurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friend, we have begun well, let us finiſh in the ſame manner." It is ſaid that about 30,000 Proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother the duke of Anjou, had ſome time before been choſen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he with ſome difficulty, eſcaped to France, where he took quiet poſſeſſion of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time ſupplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had loſt. The heads of the Proteſtants could raiſe armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were ſo equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the ſcale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guiſe. The Proteſtants under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called in the German princes to their aſſiſtance; and a ſixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the League, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himſelf lord of the Netherlands. This civil war was finiſhed within the year, by another ſham peace. The king, ever ſince his acceſſion to the crown had plunged himſelf into a courſe of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he poſſeſſed natural good ſenſe. He began to ſuſpect that the proſcriptions of the Proteſtants, and the ſetting aſide from the ſucceſſion the king of Navare, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the Holy League, was with a view to place the duke of Guiſe, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had ſome diſtant pretenſions. To ſecure himſelf on the throne; a ſeventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the diſadvan-

tage of the Proteſtants, through the abilities of the duke of Guiſe. The king thought him now ſo dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he, and his brother the cardinal were, by his majeſty's orders, and in a manner under his eye, baſely aſſaſſinated in 1588. The Leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himſelf into the arms of the Proteſtants; but while he was beſieging Paris, where the Leaguers had their greateſt force, he was in his turn aſſaſſinated by one Clement, a young enthuſiaſtic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of hiſtory are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre *, head of the houſe of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The Leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guiſe; and they drew from his cell the decrepit popiſh cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Being ſtrongly ſupported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, ſeemed only to make him more illuſtriouſly unfortunate; for he and his little court were ſometimes without common neceſſaries. He was, however, perſonally beloved; and no objection lay againſt him but that of his religion. The Leaguers, on the other hand, ſplit among themſelves; and the French nation in general, were jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themſelves of the public diſtractions. Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came ſecretly to a reſolution of declaring himſelf a Roman Catholic. This was called a meaſure of prudence if not of neceſſity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Iſabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guiſe.

In 1593 Henry went publicly to maſs, as a mark of his converſion. This complaiſance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained abſolution from the pope, all France ſubmitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for ſeveral years with various fortune. In 1598 he publiſhed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to his old friends the proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chaſtiſed the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himſelf with wonderful attention and ſucceſs (aſſiſted in all his undertakings by his miniſter, the great Sully) to promote the happineſs of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of ſilk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-eſtabliſhed the tranquility, and, in a great meaſure, ſecured the happineſs of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria; for which purpoſe, it is ſaid, he had formed great ſchemes, and collected a formidable army; others ſay (for his intention does not clearly appear) that he deſigned to have formed Chriſtendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal paſſion for a favourite princeſs, whoſe huſband had carried her for protection into the Auſtrian dominions. Whatever may be in theſe conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition,

* A ſmall kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greateſt part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predeceſſors had been unjuſtly diſpoſſeſſed, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

he was aſſaſſinated in his coach in the ſtreets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, a young enthuſiaſt, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. ſon to Henry IV. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up he diſcarded his mother and her favourites, and choſe for his miniſter the famous cardinal Richlieu, who put a period, by his reſolute and bloody meaſures, to the remaining liberties of France and to the religious eſtabliſhment of the Proteſtants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's ſiſter, made ſome weak efforts by his fleet and arms to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion, in France. Hiſtorians ſay, that in theſe wars above a million of men loſt their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were ſpent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thouſand churches, two thouſand monaſteries, and ten thouſand houſes, were burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, during their continuance.

Richlieu, by a maſterly train of politics, though himſelf bigotted to popery, ſupported the Proteſtants of Germany and Guſtavus Adolphus, againſt the houſe of Auſtria; and after quelling all the rebellions and conſpiracies which had been formed againſt him in France, he died ſome months before Lewis XIII. who, in 1643, left his ſon, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces, under the adminiſtration of his mother Anne of Auſtria, by the factions of the great, and the diviſions between the court and parliament, for the moſt trifling cauſes, and upon the moſt deſpicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing ſtar; ſometimes a patriot, ſometimes a courtier, and ſometimes a rebel. He was oppoſed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a proteſtant had turned papiſt. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domeſtic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarine for her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell againſt the Spaniards, and to divide the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that when Lewis aſſumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that had ever ſat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domeſtic adminiſtration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a ſurpriſing height.

To write the hiſtory of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs: by the latter, he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. By his impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1685, and his perſecutions of the Proteſtants, he obliged them to take ſhelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactories, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was ſo blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himſelf the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at laſt raiſed againſt himſelf a confederacy of almoſt all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. Lewis was ſo well ſerved, that he made head for ſome years againſt this alliance; but having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms under the duke of Marlborough, and of the Auſtrians under prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miſerable as the beginning of it was ſplendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe

thoſe places taken from him, which in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thouſand lives. Juſt as he was reduced, old as he was, to the deſperate reſolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was ſaved by the Engliſh tory miniſtry deſerting the cauſe, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He ſurvived his deliverance but two years; and in his laſt hours he diſplayed a greatneſs of mind worthy of his elevated ſituation. "Why do you weep," ſaid he to his domeſtics, "did you think me immortal?" He died on the firſt of September 1715, and was ſucceeded by his great-grandſon, Lewis XV. the late king.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been ſeized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood. We have already ſeen in what manner he diſcharged the national debt of France; but having embroiled himſelf with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent on the fifth of December, 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

Among the firſt acts of Lewis XVth. was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his firſt miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was entirely pacific, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Staniſlaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Staniſlaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorrain, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great Britain; in the management of which the latter was ſo ill ſeconded by her allies, that it was finiſhed by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whoſe ſullen mind, naturally unſettled, was inflamed by the diſputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the deſperate reſolution of attempting the life of his ſovereign. In the duſk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was ſuddenly wounded, though ſlightly, with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the preſence of his ſon, and in the midſt of his guards. The daring aſſaſſin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, and was inſtantly betrayed by his diſtracted countenance. He declared it never was his intention to kill the king, but that he only meant to wound him that God might touch his heart, and incline him to reſtore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-eſtabliſhing the parliament, and baniſhing the archbiſhop of Paris, whom he regarded as the ſource of the preſent commotions. In theſe frantic and incoherent declarations he perſiſted amidſt the moſt exquiſite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhauſted in deviſing new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obſtinacy, conſigned him to death, the inhumanity of which is increaſed by the evident madneſs that ſtimulated him to the fatal attempt; and which might fill the hearts of ſavages with horror. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidſt a vaſt concourſe of the populace; ſtripped naked and faſtened to the ſcaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming ſulphur. His thighs, legs and arms were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, roſin and ſulphur were poured into the wounds; and to complete the awful cataſtrophe, light ligatures being tied round his limbs, he was torn to pieces by young and vigorous horſes.

The Jeſuits having rendered themſelves univerſally odious by their ſhare in the conſpiracy againſt the life of the king of Portugal, fell in France under the laſh of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile productions. They refuſed to diſcharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large

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ſum, and who was ſuppoſed to act for the benefit of the whole ſociety. As a monk, indeed, he muſt neceſſarily do ſo. The parliaments eagerly ſeized an opportunity of humbling their ſpiritual enemies. The Jeſuits were every where cited before thoſe high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do juſtice to their creditors. They ſeemed to acquieſce in the deciſion, but delayed payment under various pretences. New ſuits were commenced againſt them, in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the courſe of theſe proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their *Inſtitute*; or the rules of their order, hitherto ſtudiouſly concealed. That myſterious volume, which was found to contain maxims ſubverſive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their ruin. All their colleges were ſeized, all their effects confiſcated; and the king aſhamed or afraid to protect them, not only reſigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdom, by a ſolemn edict, and utterly aboliſhed the order of Jeſus in France.

Elated with this victory over eccleſiaſtical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to ſet bounds to the abſolute power of the crown, and ſeemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not ſatisfied with refuſing, as uſual, to regiſter certain opppreſſive edicts, or with remonſtrating againſt them, they ordered criminal proſecutions to be commenced againſt the governors of ſeveral provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the regiſtration of thoſe edicts. The magnanimity of theſe aſſemblies had awakened new ideas in the boſoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonſtrances to conſider their inherent rights; and the glorious flame in the ſucceeding reign, burſt forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne of deſpotiſm.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it, ſo humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corſica, a ſmall iſland in the Mediterranean, had long reſiſted with manly firmneſs the oppreſſive councils of the Genoeſe, who claimed the ſovereignty over it, by right of conqueſt. But, unable to ſupport thoſe pretenſions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Lewis ſhould put her in full poſſeſſion of the adjacent iſland of Capraia, which the Corſicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corſica; and the natives, whoſe free ſuffrages had ſummoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the ſupreme government of the iſland, determined to defend their liberties to the utmoſt. A ſharp and bloody war, ſuch as ſuited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the faſtneſſes and mountainous parts of the iſland. And it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two ſucceſſive campaigns, the enthuſiaſtic courage which animates the champions of Freedom, that they overwhelmed by their ſuperior numbers this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reaſon to triumph in an acquiſition, to attain which he had ſacrificed ſeveral thouſands of his braveſt troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unproductive iſland.

The preſent king, Lewis XVI. ſucceeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. on the 10th of May 1774. Several regulations have taken place, ſince his acceſſion, highly favourable to the general intereſts of the nation, particularly the ſuppreſſion of the muſquetairs, and ſome other corps, which being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal perſon than any real military ſervice, were ſupported at a great expence, without an adequate return of benefit to the ſtate. But one of the moſt remarkable circumſtances which attended the preſent reign, was the placing of Mr. Necker, a Proteſtant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances,

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in 1776. Poſſeſſed of diſtinguiſhed and acknowledged abilities, his appointment would have excited no ſurprize, had it not been contrary to the conſtant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of the revenue. It now ſtood forward as a new inſtance of enlargement of mind and liberality of ſentiment; and will to poſterity mark the prominent features of the reign of Lewis the Sixteenth. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, throughout every department in the revenue. When hoſtilities commenced in 1777, between France and Great Britain, in conſeſequence of the aſſiſtance afforded by the former to the revolted Britiſh colonies in America, the people of France were not burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his œconomy, improvements, and reformation, that were introduced into the management of the finances.

With a moſt laudable zeal to extend the dominion of ſcience, Lewis fitted out ſeveral veſſels on aſtronomical diſcoveries. The chevalier de Borda was inſtructed to aſcertain the exact poſition of the Canary iſlands and Cape de Verd; and the different degrees of the coaſt of Africa from Cape Spartal to the iſland of Goree: the chevalier Grenier, who had traverſed the Indian ſeas to improve the charts and correct the errors of former navigators, was liberally rewarded by a monarch who aſpired to immortalize the æra of his power by expeditions beneficial to mankind.

The viſit of the emperor to the court of Paris was another occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. Averſe to pomp, he choſe to travel under the humble title of count Falkenſtein; he was received by Lewis with that reſpect which was due to the imperial dignity, and the regard that he was impatient to teſtify to the brother of his royal conſort. During ſix weeks that the emperor remained at Paris, his hours were inceſſantly devoted to examine the various eſtabliſhments of that capital, and in viewing the manufactures. With the ſame ſpirit of enquiry he made a tour through different provinces of the kingdom, and in his journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be advantageous to his own dominions.

Amidſt the fury of war, Lewis diſplayed that regard for ſcience which had early formed a ſtriking characteriſtic of his reign; and while he poured the thunder of his arms on his enemies, two ſhips were marked by an honourable exemption from the attempts of the fleets of France. Previous to the commencement of hoſtilities, the Engliſh had ſent two veſſels into the South Seas, commanded by Captains Cook and Clerke, to explore the coaſts and iſlands of Japan and California; the return of thoſe veſſels was hourly expected in Europe; and Lewis, with a conſiderate humanity which reflects the higheſt luſtre on his character, by a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded them to abſtain from all hoſtilities againſt theſe ſhips, and to treat them as neutral veſſels. The letters mentioned alſo in terms of the higheſt reſpect captain Cook, who had long diſtinguiſhed himſelf in ſucceſſive voyages of diſcovery. But death allowed not that celebrated navigator to enjoy this grateful teſtimony to his merit; and in one of the newly diſcovered iſlands he had already fallen a victim to the blind fury of the ſavage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in conſequence of the repreſentations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unneceſſary offices in the houſehold of the king and queen were aboliſhed; and ſundry other important regulations adopted, for the eaſe of the ſubject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. He changed the exceſs of diſburſements at leaſt one million ſterling, of the year 1776, into an exceſs of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000l. But the meaſures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the intereſted, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have poſſeſſed ſufficient firmneſs of mind to ſupport an upright and able miniſter. He was therefore diſplaced, and is ſaid to have been particularly oppoſed by the queen's party.

The miniſters of Great Britain, whoſe imprudence and incapacity had plunged their country in a war as calamitous in the concluſion, as it was impolitic in the origin, were at length, by the clamour of the multitude, and the indignation of parliament removed from the councils of their ſovereign; and they were ſucceeded by men who no longer nouriſhed the frantic idea of controuling the independence of America. The freedom of that continent had been the grand object of France, and that having been acknowledged in the fulleſt and moſt expreſs terms by Great Britain; the preliminary articles of peace were ſigned at Paris on the 20th of January 1783; but the immenſe expences incurred were found at laſt to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means ſupport; and the miſerable exigencies to which government was reduced, contributed no doubt to bring about the preſent revolution.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the laſt and preſent centuries, no object appears of more conſequence to her naval operations than the obtaining a port in the channel. With a view of obviating this want, the government of France took up this important object with the greateſt zeal and vigour; and having employed the ableſt engineers in that kingdom, have proceeded, by the moſt aſtoniſhing and ſtupendous works, to render the port of Cherburg capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. Since the laſt peace, they have proſecuted this work at an annual expence of upwards of 200,000l. and expectation is ſo ſanguine, that it is thought a year or two more will effect this arduous and important undertaking.

In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Verſailles, of which ſome notice has been previouſly taken in our account of England; and this having concluded the tranſactions between the two kingdoms we have now only to give an account of the late revolution; an event indeed no leſs remarkable for the greatneſs of the object, than the firmneſs and unanimity with which it was concluded.

The policy of the French government which led it to the ſtandards of liberty in America and Holland, excited a ſpirit amongſt the people, which could not well unite with the continuance of arbitrary power at home. The diſmiſſion of Monſieur Necker from the direction of public affairs, and ſucceeding miniſters being endowed neither with his integrity or abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined, when the edict for regiſtering the loan at the concluſion of 1785, and which amounted to the ſum of three millions, three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds, was preſented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonſtrances of that aſſembly, aſſumed a more legal and formidable form. The king, however, ſignified to the ſelect deputation that were commiſſioned to convey to him their remonſtrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. The ceremony of the regiſtering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a reſolution, importing that public œconomy was the only genuine ſource of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the neceſſities of the ſtate, and reſtoring that credit, which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding was no ſooner known than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; he eraſed from their records the reſolution that had been adopted; and obſerved, though it was his pleaſure that the parliament ſhould communicate by its reſpectful repreſentations whatever might intereſt the good of the public, yet he never would conſent that they ſhould ſo far abuſe his confidence and mercy as to erect themſelves into the cenſors of his adminiſtration; he expected in future they ſhould confine their expreſſions within the limits of wiſdom and loyalty; he declared himſelf ſatisfied with the conduct of Monſieur Calonne, his comptroller

troller general; and more ſtrongly to mark his diſapprobation, he directed the diſmiſſion from farther ſervice of one their officers who had appeared moſt active in forwarding the late reſolution.

However gratified by the ſupport of his ſovereign, Monſieur de Calonne could not fail of finding himſelf deeply mortified by the oppoſition of the parliament. His addreſs to conciliate that aſſembly had proved ineffectual, and he experienced their inflexible averſion at the critical juncture, when their acquieſcence might have proved of the moſt eſſential ſervice. An anxious enquiry into the ſtate of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the preſent ſituation, to impoſe new taxes was impoſſible, to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourſe only to œconomical reforms, would be found wholly inadequate; and he heſitated not to declare that it would be impoſſible to place the finances on a ſolid baſis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the conſtitution of the ſtate.

To give weight to this reform, the miniſter was ſenſible that ſomething more was neceſſary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit inſtrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would ſubmit to be a paſſive machine for ſanctioning the plans of a miniſter, even if thoſe plans were the emanations of perfect wiſdom. Though originally a body of lawyers, indebted for their appointments to the king, there was not an attribute of genuine legiſlative aſſembly that they did not ſeem deſirous to engroſs to themſelves; and they had been ſupported in their pretenſions by the plaudits of the people, who were ſenſible that there was no other body in the nation who could plead their cauſe againſt royal oppreſſion.

Under theſe circumſtances, the only alternative that ſeemed to remain was to have recourſe to ſome other aſſembly, more dignified and ſolemn in its character, and that ſhould conſiſt in a greater degree of members from the various orders of the ſtate, and the different provinces of the kingdom. This promiſed to be a popular meaſure; it implied a deference to the people at large, and might be expected to prove greatly acceptable; but the true and legitimate aſſembly of the nation, the ſtates-general, had not met ſince the year 1614; nor could the miniſter flatter himſelf with the hope of obtaining the royal aſſent to a meeting which a deſpotic ſovereign could not but regard with ſecret jealouſy. Another aſſembly had occaſionally been ſubſtituted in the room of the ſtates-general; this was diſtinguiſhed by the title of the *Notables*, or men of note, and conſiſted of a number of perſons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly ſelected from the higher orders of the ſtate, and nominated by the king himſelf. This aſſembly had been convened by Henry the Fourth, and again by Lewis the Thirteenth; and was now once more ſummoned by the authority of the preſent monarch.

The writs for calling together the aſſembly of the notables were dated on the 29th of December, 1786; they were addreſſed to ſeven princes of the blood, nine dukes and peers of France, eight field mareſchals, twenty-two nobles, eight counſellors of ſtate, four maſters of requeſts, eleven archbiſhops and biſhops, thirty-ſeven of the heads of the law, twelve deputies of the pays d'etats, the lieutenant civil, and twenty-five magiſtrates of the different towns of the kingdom. The number of members was one hundred and four; and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was at the moment when the members of the notables had arrived at Paris, and when the attention of all claſſes in the kingdom was fixed upon their meeting as an important æra in the national hiſtory, that the miniſter found himſelf yet unprepared to ſubmit his ſyſtem to their inſpection, and poſtponed the opening of the council to the 7th of February. This delay was injudicious in the higheſt degree; and to

his the ſubſequent revolution is ſaid immediately to have been owing. Politics had occupied the minds of men, particularly in the metropolis, to the excluſion of every other ſubject; and, during this interval, an opportunity was given to the members of converſing with each other, communicating their complaints, and forming ſchemes for redreſs. A ſecond delay to the 14th of the ſame month was occaſioned by the indiſpoſition of Monſieur de Calonne himſelf, and that of the count de Vergennes, preſident of the council of finance, and firſt ſecretary of ſtate; and a third procraſtination, owing to the death of the count, poſtponed the meeting to the 22d of February.

It was under theſe difficulties that Monſieur Calonne firſt met the aſſembly of the notables, and opened his long expected plan. He began by ſtating that the public expenditure had for centuries paſt exceeded the revenue, that a very conſiderable deficiency had of courſe exiſted, and that at his own acceſſion to office it was three millions, three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds.

To remedy this evil the comptroller-general recommended a territorial impoſt, in the nature of the Engliſh land-tax, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; an enquiry into the poſſeſſions of the clergy, which hitherto had been deemed ſacred, from their proportion of the public burthens; the various branches of internal taxation were alſo to undergo a ſtrict examination; and a conſiderable reſource was preſented in mortgaging the demeſne lands of the crown.

Before Monſieur Necker retired from the management of the finances, he had publiſhed his Compte rendu au Roi, in which France was repreſented as poſſeſſing a clear ſurplus of four hundred and twenty-five thouſand pounds ſterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been conſidered as an æra in the hiſtory of France. The credit of this ſtatement was ably vindicated by Monſieur de Brienne, archbiſhop of Thouloufe, and by the count de Mirabeau, a ſtill more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have ſucceſsfully vindicated his ſyſtem and reputation againſt the calculations of Brienne, and the invectives of Mirabeau; but the genius of the comptroller-general ſunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and eſſential object of reform was to equalize the public burthens, and by rendering the taxes general, to diminiſh the load of the lower and moſt uſeful claſſes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public aſſeſſments; the crouds of new nobleſſe, who had purchaſed their patents, were by that ſhameful cuſtom exempted, both themſelves and their poſterity, from contributing proportionally to the expences of the ſtate; the magiſtracies likewiſe throughout the kingdom enjoyed their ſhare of theſe exemptions; ſo that the whole weight of the taxes fell on thoſe who were leaſt able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magiſtracy, were united againſt the miniſter, and the event was ſuch as might be expected. The intrigues of thoſe three bodies raiſed againſt him ſo loud a clamour, that finding it impoſſible to ſtem the torrent, Monſieur de Calonne not only reſigned his place on the 12th of April, but ſoon after retired to England from the ſtorm of perſecution.

The notables proceeded in their enquiries, and it was now ſuggeſted that an aſſembly of the ſtates ſhould be called, as the notables were not competent to impoſe a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in ſecret, this propoſal was inſtantly circulated through the capital, and ſuppoſed to be a new diſcovery. The notables were ſoon after diſſolved, without having accompliſhed anything except the juſtification of M. Necker.

The ſtamp-act, however, was eſtabliſhed, and a bed of juſtice was held by the king on the fifth of Auguſt, 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was regiſtered, notwithſtanding their proteſt to the contrary: but the parliament, though defeated, were far being ſubdued. On the day after

the king had held his bed of juſtice, they entered a formal proteſt againſt the conceſſion that had been extorted from them. They declared that the edict had been regiſtered againſt their approbation and conſent, by the king's expreſs command; that it neither ought, nor ſhould have any force; and the firſt perſon who ſhould preſume to attempt to carry it into execution, ſhould be adjudged a traitor, and condemned to the galleys.

This declaration left to the crown no other alternative than either proceeding to extremities in ſupport of its authority, or giving up for ever after the power of raiſing money upon any occaſion without the conſent of parliament. Painful as every appearance of violence muſt have proved to the mild diſpoſition of Lewis, he could not conſent to ſurrender, without a ſtruggle, that authority which had been ſo long exerciſed by his predeceſſors. Since the commencement of the preſent diſcontents, the capital had been gradually filled with conſiderable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the proteſt, an officer of the French guards, with a party of ſoldiers, went at break of day to the houſe of each individual member, to ſignify to him the king's command, that he ſhould immediately get into his carriage, proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about ſeventy miles from Paris, without writing or ſpeaking to any perſon out of his own houſe before his departure. Theſe orders were ſerved at the ſame inſtant, and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the tranſaction, the parliament were already on the road to the ſcene of their baniſhment.

But previous to their removal, they had preſented a remonſtrance on the late meaſures of government, and the alarming ſtate of public affairs. In ſtating their opinions on taxes, they declared that neither the parliaments, nor any other authority, excepting that of the three ſtates of the kingdom, collectively aſſembled, could warrant the laying of any permanent tax upon the people; and they ſtrongly enforced the renewal of thoſe national aſſemblies, which had rendered the reign of Charlemagne ſo great and illuſtrious.

So great was the reſentment of the whole nation againſt the baniſhment of the parliament, that after a month's exile it was recalled. This was ſcarcely done, when they were deſired to regiſter a loan; at which they heſitated, notwithſtanding all the manœvres of the miniſter. At laſt the king came to the houſe, and held what is called a royal ſeſſion. The edicts were now regiſtered, but the Duke of Orleans proteſted, in the preſence of the king, againſt the legality of the proceeding. The parliament proteſted againſt the legality of the ſeſſion itſelf, but to no purpoſe. The Duke of Orleans, with four others, were baniſhed; the king called for the journals of the houſe, deſtroyed the proteſt, and forbad it to be inſerted again. Great clamours were raiſed by the baniſhment of the Duke of Orleans, and the other members of parliament; remomſtrances were preſented by the parliaments of Paris, Bourdeaux, and Rennes, but the exiles were not recalled till the ſpring of 1788.

The parliament of Paris had not confined their demands to the liberation of thoſe gentlemen, but had echoed the remonſtrances of the parliament of Grenoble, and had loudly inveighed againſt the execution of *lettres de cachet*. So free and pointed were the ſpeeches of two of the members that Lewis was once more prevailed upon to recur to ſeverity, and Meſſrs. d'Eſpremevil and Monſambert were committed to ſeparate ſtate-priſons.

The remonſtrance of the parliament on this new inſtance of deſpotiſm, exceeded in boldneſs all the former repreſentations of that aſſembly, they declared they were now more ſtrongly confirmed, by every proceeding, of the entire innovation which was aimed at in the conſtitution. "But, Sire," added they, "the French nation "will never adopt the deſpotic meaſures to which you are adviſed, and whoſe "effects alarm the moſt faithful of your magiſtrates; we ſhall not repeat all the

" unfortunate circumſtances which afflict us; we ſhall only repreſent to you with " reſpectful firmneſs, that the fundamental laws of the kingdom *muſt* not be " trampled upon; and that *your authority can only be eſteemed, ſo long as it is tempered* " *with juſtice.*"

Language ſo bold and deciſive, and which aſſerted the controlling power of the laws above the regal authority, could not fail of ſeriouſly alarming the royal boſom. No alternative remained now to Lewis but to plunge his country into all the calamities of civil war, or to comply with the wiſhes of his people, and re-eſtabliſh the ſtates-general. In the firſt caſe, he muſt have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magiſtrates; the peers of the realm had expreſſed the ſtrongeſt diſapprobation of his meaſures, nor could he even depend any longer on the princes of his blood; but what afforded moſt ſerious matter of alarm was the ſpirit lately diſplayed among the military, who, during the diſturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their ſwords againſt their countrymen; and many of whoſe officers, ſo recently engaged in eſtabliſhing the freedom of America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of deſpotiſm.

Yet it was not till after many a painful ſtruggle, that Lewis could reſolve to reſtore an aſſembly, whoſe influence muſt naturally over-ſhadow that of the crown, and whoſe juriſdiction would confine, within narrow limits, the boundleſs power he had inherited from his predeceſſor. During the two preceding reigns, the ſtates general had been wholly diſcontinued; and though the queen-regent, during the troubles which attended the minority of Lewis the Fourteenth, frequently expreſſed her intention of calling them together, ſhe was conſtantly diſſuaded by the repreſentations of the crafty Mazarine. It is probable that the preſent monarch ſtill flattered himſelf with the fallacious hope of being able to allure the members of that aſſembly to the ſide of the court; and having employed them to eſtabliſh ſome degree of regularity in the finances, and to curb the ſpirit of the parliaments, he would again diſmiſs them to obſcurity.

It was under theſe impreſſions, in the beginning of Auguſt, an arret was publiſhed, which fixed the meeting of the ſtates-general to the firſt of May in the enſuing year, viz. 1789; at the ſame time every ſtep was taken to ſecure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements took place in the admiſtration, and Monſieur Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was againſt introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been reſtricted in part, was now entirely aboliſhed; every perſon accuſed was allowed the aſſiſtance of counſel, and permitted to avail himſelf of any point of law; and it was decreed that in future, ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed on any perſon, unleſs the party accuſed ſhould be pronounced guilty by a majority at leaſt of three judges.

But the moſt important conſideration that occupied the attention of the ſovereign and his miniſters, was the means of re-aſſembling the ſtates-general. The laſt meeting, in the year 1614, had been convened by application to the bailiwicks; but this mode was liable to ſeveral ſtrong objections; the bailiwicks had been increaſed in number and juriſdiction, and ſince that period ſeveral provinces had been united to France; nor were the numbers and quality of the members leſs an object of ſerious deliberation; and it was not till the cloſe of the year that the propoſal of Monſ. Necker was adopted, and publicly regiſtered, which fixed the number of deputies at one thouſand and upwards; and ordained that the repreſentatives of the third eſtate or commons, ſhould equal in number thoſe of the nobility and clergy united.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the ſtates-general, or national aſſembly, whoſe re-eſtabliſhment, in the month of May, 1789, preſented a new æra in the government

government of France. But the moment of their meeting was far from auſpicious to the court, but greatly ſo to the intereſt of the nation. The minds of the French had long been agitated by various humours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the ſtates was extinguiſhed by the jarring pretenſions of each; and their mutual jealouſies were attributed by the ſuſpicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were ſuppoſed already to repent of the haſty aſſent that had been extorted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increaſed the general gloom and diſcontent, and the people preſſed by hunger, and inflamed by reſentment, were ripe for revolt. The ſovereign alſo, equally impatient of the obſtacles he inceſſantly encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again eſtabliſhed, and was attended by the immediate removal of Monſ. Necker. This ſtep, which evinced a total change of reſolutions, and which, from the popularity of the miniſter, was likely to produce a violent fermentation in every order of men, was followed by others equally injudicious. The ſtates-general were driven into the "Salle des Etats," where they held their meetings, by detachments of the guards, who ſurrounded them, and who waited only the orders of the court, to proceed to greater extremities againſt the obnoxious repreſentatives of the nation.

Had theſe manifeſtations of vigour been only ſuſtained by inſtantly attacking and entering Paris, it is not to be doubted that unprepared as it ſtill was, and unwilling to expoſe to the licence of an incenſed ſoldiery the lives and properties of its citizens, the capital would have been without difficulty reduced to obedience. But the delay which ſucceeded gave the inhabitants time to recover from their firſt emotions of ſurprize and apprehenſion. They ſaw the timidity and imbecility of the government, who, having ſounded the charge, dared not advance to the attack. They profited by this want of exertion; and paſſing from one extreme rapidly to another, they almoſt unanimouſly took up arms againſt their rulers and oppreſſors. Joined by the French guards, who, from a long reſidence in the capital, had been peculiarly expoſed to ſeduction, and who at this deciſive moment abandoned their ſovereign, the Pariſians broke through every obſtacle by which they had hitherto been reſtrained. The ſupplies of arms and ammunition, which had been provided for their ſubjugation, were turned againſt the crown; and the "Hotel des Invalides," the great repoſitory of military ſtores, after a faint reſiſtance ſurrendered.

The prince de Lambeſc, who alone, of all the officers commanding the royal troops in the vicinity of Paris, attempted to carry into execution the plan for diſarming the capital, was repulſed in a premature and injudicious attack, which he made at the head of his dragoons, near the entrance of the garden of the Tuilleries. Already the "Provot des Marchands," Monſieur de Fleſſels, convicted of entertaining a correſpondence with the court, and detected in ſending private intelligence to Monſieur de Launay, governor of the Baſtile, had been ſeized by the people, and fallen the firſt victim to the general indignation. His head, borne on a lance, exhibited an alarming ſpectacle of the danger to which adherence to the ſovereign muſt expoſe, in a time of anarchy and inſurrection.

The Baſtile alone remained; and while it continued in the power of the crown, Paris could not be regarded as free, or even ſecure from the ſevereſt chaſtiſement. It was inſtantly inveſted on the 14th of July, 1789, by a mixed multitude, compoſed of citizens, and ſoldiers who had joined the popular banner. De Launay, who commanded in the caſtle, by an act of perfidy, unjuſtifiable under any circumſtances, and which rendered his fate leſs regretted, rather accelerated, than delayed the capture of this important fortreſs. He diſplayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley; but abuſing the confidence which theſe ſignals inſpired, he diſcharged a heavy fire from the cannon and muſquetry of the place upon the beſiegers, and made a conſiderable

carnage. Far from intimidating, he only augmented, by ſo treacherous a breach of faith, the rage of an incenſed populace. They renewed their exertions with a valour raiſed to frenzy, and were crowned with ſucceſs. The Baſtile, that awful engine of deſpotiſm, whoſe name alone diffuſed terror, and which for many ages had been ſacred to ſilence and deſpair, was entered by the victorious aſſailants. De Launay, ſeized and dragged to the "Place de Greve," was inſtantly diſpatched, and his head carried in triumph through the ſtreets of Paris.

In this priſon were found the moſt horrible engines for putting to the ſevereſt tortures thoſe unhappy perſons, whom the cruelty or jealouſy of the monarch, or even of his favourite miſtreſs, had determined to deſtroy. An iron cage, about twelve tons in weight was found with the ſkeleton of a man in it, who had probably lingered out a great part of his days in that horrible manſion. Among the priſoners releaſed by its deſtruction were major White, a Scotſman, earl Mazarine, an Iriſh nobleman, and the count de Lorges. The former appeared to have his intellectual faculties almoſt totally impaired by the long confinement and miſeries he had endured; and, by being unaccuſtomed to converſe with any human creature, he had forgotten the uſe of ſpeech. Earl Mazarine, on his arrival at the Britiſh ſhore, eagerly jumped out of the boat, fell down on his knees, and kiſſing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bleſs this land of liberty." The count de Lorges, at a very advanced period of life, was alſo liberated, and exhibited to the public curioſity in the "Palais Royal." His ſqualid appearance, his white beard which deſcended to his waiſt, and above all, his imbecility, reſulting probably from the effect of an impriſonment of thirty-two years, were objects highly calculated to operate upon the ſenſes and paſſions of every beholder. It is indeed impoſſible, not to participate in the exultation, which a capital and a country ſo highly illuminated, and ſo long oppreſſed, muſt have experienced, at the extinction of this deteſtable and juſtly dreaded priſon of ſtate.

With the Baſtile expired the royal authority and conſideration. The deſpotiſm of the French princes, which long preſcription, ſubmiſſion, and military ſtrength ſeemed to render equally ſacred and unaſſailable: which neither the calamities of the cloſe of Lewis the Fourteenth's reign, the profligacy and enormities of the ſucceeding regency, nor the ſtate of degradation into which the monarchy ſunk under Lewis the Fifteenth, had ever ſhaken: that power, which appeared to derive its ſupport almoſt as much from the loyalty and veneration, as from the dread and terrors of the ſubject, fell proſtrate in the duſt, and never betrayed a ſymptom of returning life.

Every friend to the natural rights and liberties of man, every man who has any drops of the "milk of human kindneſs" in his conſtitution, muſt rejoice in the overthrow of a government ſo deſpotic as was that of France, and in the formation of a new conſtitution upon the broad baſis of the natural equality of men. That coolneſs, that patriotiſm and good ſenſe which the national aſſembly have diſcovered, prove them to be worthy of the high truſt which has been repoſed in them. With unwearied pains they have been forming a new conſtitution, of which the following are fundamental poſitions, 1. Men are born and always continue free, and equal in reſpect of their rights. Civil diſtinctions therefore can be founded only on public utility. 2. The end of all political aſſociations is the preſervation of the natural, and impreſcriptible rights of man; and theſe rights are liberty, property, ſecurity, and reſiſtance of oppreſſion. 3. The nation is eſſentially the ſource of all ſovereignty, nor can any individual, or any body of men, be entitled to any authority which is not expreſsly derived from it.

Though the national aſſembly have not yet thoroughly ſettled the new conſtitution on a firm baſis, they have made ſeveral excellent regulations, which promiſe

to

to make that kingdom, from one of the moſt deſpotic in Europe, a greater ſeat of liberty than even Britain itſelf. No inſtitution, however, does the aſſembly more honour than the unlimited toleration in religious matters which has at length taken place in that once intolerant country; and what is very remarkable, this important point was carried without a diviſion. By this act all citizens are admiſſible to civil and military offices, without any other *teſt* than that of being good ſubjects to the ſtate. All orders and titles of nobility are aboliſhed, and no other diſtinction known than what ariſes from a man's perſonal character. Juſtice is to be executed without any expence to the people. A new diviſion of the kingdom has taken place, and the number of deputies ſent to the national aſſembly by each diſtrict, to be in proportion to the population, taxes, and territory, jointly conſidered.

Notwithſtanding the ſolemn oath which his majeſty had taken to ſupport the new conſtitution, on the night of Monday the 20th of June, 1791, about twelve o'clock, the king and queen of France, with their infant children, and Monſieur and Madame, commenced the execution of their long meditated project to the army of royaliſts. The centinels it is ſaid were gained by means of bribes. His majeſty and the royal family were abſent ſix hours before a diſcovery took place, and a paper was left behind him in which the king declared, "*that he ſolemnly revoked all the acts to which he had ſet his name.*"

This unexampled eſcape, which menaced France with the convulſions of anarchy and the horrors of civil war, has happily produced none of thoſe effects which the enemies of freedom predicted with ſo much triumph, and her friends expected with ſo much alarm. No life was ſacrificed, no property was violated, by the populace of Paris. They ſeemed inſpired, by the greatneſs of their cauſe, with a magnanimity which counteracted their terror, and diſarmed their reſentment. After a few hours of ferment and alarm, they ſubſided into a tranquil and confident ſubmiſſion to their auguſt repreſentatives.

That body, to whom the abdication of the king had now devolved the dictatorſhip of France, diſplayed a ſerenity, a firmneſs, a magnanimity, to which no parallel is recorded in hiſtory. Unappalled by the tempeſt which threatened their exiſtence, and the ſhipwreck of their ſyſtem, they fixed their ſteady eye on the grand object of giving nerve to public order. They paſſed no vindictive decree—they enflamed no popular reſentment. But the detail of their proceedings from the morning of Tueſday, when they learned the flight of the king, to the evening of Wedneſday, when the news of his capture arrived in Paris, will be the moſt ample and fair eulogy on the manlineſs and wiſdom of that aſſembly.

The rout of the royal fugitives, which had been expected to be towards the Auſtrian Netherlands, the neareſt frontiers of the kingdom, was in fact directed towards Metz, from the preſence of ſo gallant and accompliſhed a royaliſt as M. de Bouillé in that quarter, from its vicinity to the prince of Conde's army in Germany, and from the probable reluctance of Leopold to hazard the tranquillity of his Netherlands, by permitting any incurſion from them into France. They reached St. Menehoud, a ſmall town, about 150 miles from Paris. The king was there recognized by the poſtillion, who ſaid to him, "*Mon Roi, je vous connois mais je ne vous trahirai pas.*" "I know you, my king, but I will not betray you." But the poſt-maſter, M. Drouet, leſs full of monarchic prejudice, and more ſolicitous for the tranquillity of his country adopted a different conduct. He refrained with great dexterity and preſence of mind from betraying his knowledge of the rank of the royal travellers, being much ſtruck with the reſemblance which his majeſty's countenance bore to his effigy on an aſſignat of 50 livres. The carriages taking the road to Varennes, he went a croſs-road, in order to rejoin them; and arriving before them at Varennes, he alarmed the town, and aſſembled the national guards, who, notwithſtanding the

detachment

detachment of huſſars to protect his route, diſarmed them, and the KING was then *made a priſoner:* and at ſix o'clock in the afternoon of the 25th of June, their majeſties, with the Dauphin and Madame Royale arrived at the Tuilleries.

The enemies of the revolution imagined perhaps that it was only deſired at Paris, and that the body of the people held oppoſite ſentiments; but from the addreſſes to the national aſſembly from various parts of the empire, from the zeal and ardour for the new conſtitution, which ſeems to inſpire all ranks and orders of men, they appear all to be animated with but one ſoul. The ſame firmneſs, the ſame knowledge, the ſame patriotiſm, is evident in them all.

What the deciſion of the national aſſembly will be as to the treatment of the king, could not be known, when this part of our work went to the preſs, but we heſitate not to predict that it will be moſt perfectly conſiſtent with the wiſdom, the dignity, and the temperance, which guided the councils and conduct of this illuſtrious band of legiſlators, in the hour of alarm, uncertainty, and peril.

Lewis XVI. king of France and Navarre, was born in 1754, ſucceeded his grandfather Lewis XV. in 1774, married, 1770, to Maria Antonietta, ſiſter of the emperor of Germany, born 1755. Their iſſue are Madame Maria Thereſa Charlotte, born on the 19th of December 1778; and Lewis Joſeph Xavier Francis, dauphin of France, born October 22, 1781.

His majeſty's brothers and ſiſters are,

1. L. Stan. Xavier, count de Provence, born 1755.
2. Charles Philip, count d'Artois, born 1757.
3. Maria Adelaid Clotilda Xaveria, born 1759.
4. Elizabeth Philippa Maria Helena, born 1764.

Iſſue of Lewis XV. now living, are,

1. Maria Adelaide, ducheſs of Lorrain and Bar, born 1732.
2. Victoria Louiſa Maria Thereſa, born 1733.
3. Sophia Philippina Elizabeth Juſtinia, born 1734.
4. Louiſa Maria, born 1737, who went into a convent of Carmelites, and took the veil in 1770.

NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect of Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	360	between	49 and 54 North lat.
Breadth	260		2 and 7 Eaſt lon.

They are bounded by the German ſea on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorrain and France, South; and by the Britiſh channel, Weſt.

I ſhall for the ſake of perſpicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the ſeventeen provinces under two great diviſions: firſt, the *Northern*, which contains the ſeven United

United Provinces, uſually known by the name of HOLLAND: ſecondly, the *Southern* containing the Auſtrian, and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overyſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Miles.		Degrees.			
Length 153 Breadth nearly the ſame.	between	51 and 54	North lat.
		3 and 7	Eaſt lon.

The following, from Templeman's ſurvey of the globe, is the moſt ſatisfactory account we meet with of their geographical diviſion, including the Texel, and other iſlands.

Countries Names, United Provinces.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calviniſts.	Overyſſel	1,900	66	50	Deventer
	Holland	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM
	Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimeguen
	Frieſland	810	44	34	Leuwarden
	Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen
	Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen
	Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht
	Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg
	Texel and other iſlands	113			
	Total —	7,546			

The ſubdiviſions of the United Provinces, with their chief towns, have alſo been given in the following manner;

Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.	Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.
1. Holland.	South Holland.	Amſterdam	1. Holland.	North Holland.	Saardam
		Rotterdam			Edam
		Delft			Hoorn
		Hague			Euchuſen
		Haerlem			Alkemaer
		Leyden			Monckdam
		Dort			Puermerent
		Williamſtadt			
		Naerden	Iſlands of Holland.	Voorn	Briel
		Gorcum		Iſlemond	Helvoetſluys
		Heuſden		Goree	Goree
				Overflake	Somerdyke
				Texel	Burg
				Vlie	Two Villages
				Schelling	Five Villages

Prov.	Subdiv.	Chief Towns.
2. Iſlands of Zealand.	Walchereh	Middleburg, Fluſhing, Terveer, Rammekins
	Schowen	Zurickſee, Brewerſhaven
	N. Beveland	Tolen
	S. Beveland	Cats
	Duyveland	Tergoes
3. Frieſland N. E. of Holland.	Oſtergoe	Lewarden, Dockum
	Weſtergoe	Franker, Harlingen
	Sevenwolden	Sloot
4. Groningen N. E. of Holland.	Groningen	Groningen, Winſchoten
	The Omlands	Dam
5. Overyſſel E. of the Zuider ſea.	Iſeland	Daventer, Zwoll
	The Drente	Covarden, Otmarſen
6. Gelderland and Zutphen, S. E. of Holland.	Velew	Anheim, Loo palace, Hardewicke
	Betewe, olim Batavia	Nimeguen, Skenkenſchans, Bommel
	Zutphen	Zutphen, Doeſhurg, Groll
	Gelder quarter	Gelder, Venlo

The town of Gelder is ſubject to Pruſſia, and hath been ſince 1713.

7. UTRECHT in the Middle.

Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
On the old channel of the Rhine	Utrecht
North of the Old Rhine	Amerfort
South of the Old Rhine	Dueſtardwyck

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Theſe provinces lie oppoſite to England, at the diſtance of 90 miles, upon the eaſt ſide of the Engliſh channel, and are only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants have gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which they have raiſed and ſtill ſupport with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moiſture of the air cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reaſon of their perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, and of the brightneſs and cleanlineſs in their houſes ſo much taken notice of. The ſoil is unfavourable to vegetation, but, by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a deſirable country to live in, eſpecially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor riſing grounds, no plantations, purling ſtreams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained at certain diſtances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country ſerve as high-roads, are in the ſummer months no better than offenſive ſtagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important conſideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largeſt and fineſt rivers in Europe; the Meaſe, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt, are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and

and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but by draining their bogs and marshes they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of the best butter and cheese in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and indeed many of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other country in Europe. It is said, there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fish is much the same as ours, but their sea-fish is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deeper water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all these inconveniencies, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers) as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages and 2,758,632 inhabitants, according to a public account given in 1785. Besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands *. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea by their herring-fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fishes to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness, with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for in all other respects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. Their attention to the constitution and independency of their country is owing to the same principle; for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themselves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their interest at stake; witness their sea wars with England and France. Their boors, though

* Monsieur de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of Holland at 2,500,000, but Mr. Templeman estimates them only at 2,000,000, which, in proportion to the populousness of England is more than six to one, considering the extent of the country. Holland is also reckoned to have as many souls as the other six provinces, which, if true, the people of the seven provinces with their appendages must be very numerous.

ſlow of underſtanding, are manageable by fair means. Their ſeamen are a plain, blunt, but rough, ſurly, and ill-mannered ſort of people, and appear to be inſenſible of public ſpirit and affection for each other. Their tradeſmen in general are reckoned honeſt in their dealings, and very ſparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practiſed by old and young of both ſexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are ſo unſociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every ſpecies of brutality. The Dutch have alſo been known to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt abroad, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both ſexes, it is owing in a great meaſure to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general, all appetites and paſſions ſeem to run lower and cooler here than in moſt other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions ſeem no natives of this country; and love itſelf is little better than a mechanical affection, ariſing from intereſt, conveniency, or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth they unite the no leſs neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to ſpend leſs than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this ſagacious people, that the common courſe of expence ſhould equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think at leaſt they have lived that year to no purpoſe; and the report of it uſed to diſcredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not ſo univerſal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewiſe practiſed by many of their faſhionable ladies, and ſome of them diſcover more propenſity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of thoſe inhabitants, whoſe lot, if not riches, is at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency; and among whom fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of a world of taxes and contributions, ſuch as no other country experiences, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous works of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water that had overflowed ſo large a part of it during many ages, while at the ſame time they brought under their ſubjection and command the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories againſt the danger of an enemy This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable ſluices; by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inacceſſible. From that frugality and perſeverance by which they have been ſo much characteriſed, they were enabled, though labouring under the greateſt difficulties, not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galleons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa, and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a deſpicable province, a moſt powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the growth of their military and marine eſtabliſhments, maintaining during their celebrated contenſion with Lewis XIV. and Charles II.

H. of England, not leſs than 150,000 men, and upwards of 80 ſhips of the line. But a ſpirit of frugality being now leſs univerſal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of the Engliſh and French; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch differ not much from thoſe of the Engliſh, who ſeemed to have borrowed from them the neatneſs of their drinking-booths, ſkittle and other grounds, and ſmall pieces of water, which form the amuſements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other muſical inventions. They are the beſt ſkaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to ſee the crowds in a hard froſt upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

Dress.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men; and the jerkins, plain mobs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickneſs and clumſineſs of their perſons, gave them a very groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongſt the ſea-fearing people.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Preſbyterian and Calviniſm; none but Preſbyterians are admitted into any office or poſt in the government, except the army; yet all religious ſects are tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the Papiſts and Jews are very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be conſidered as a ſtriking inſtance of the benefits ariſing to a nation from univerſal toleration. As every man is allowed to worſhip God according to the dictates of his own conſcience, perſons of the moſt oppoſite opinions live together in harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reaſon to complain of being oppreſſed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore in Holland men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are aſſociated together by the common ties of humanity and the bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the ſtate; with equal encouragement to arts and induſtry, and equal freedom of ſpeculation and enquiry.

Language.] The natural language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French. Their Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onſe Vader, die in de hemel zyt uwen naam worde geheylight: uw'koningkryk kome: uwe wille geſchiede gelyck en den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelyks brood geef ons heeden, ende vergeeft onſe ſchulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onſe ſchuldenaaren: ende laats ons niet in verſoeking maer verl ſs ons van de booſen.* Amen.

Learning and learned men.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand almoſt at the head of modern learning, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magiſtrates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koſter in 1440; and the moſt elegant editions of the claſſics came from the Dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controverſial divinity, which inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that before principles of univerſal toleration prevailed, it had almoſt proved fatal to the government; witneſs the violent diſputes about Arminianiſm, free-will, predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burmann are ranked among their numerous commentators upon the claſſics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and later times have produced a Van Haaren, who is poſſeſſed of

of ſome poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 publiſhed poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities, chiefly becauſe their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The univerſity of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largeſt and moſt ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, beſides a number of printed books, has two thouſand oriental manuſcripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large ſphere adapted to the Copernican ſyſtem, and moving by clock-work. Here is alſo a phyſic-graden, and an anatomical theatre.

The univerſity of Utrecht, in the province of the ſame name, was changed from a ſchool into an univerſity, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other univerſities, being entirely ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The phyſic garden here is very curious; and for the recreation of the ſtudents, on the eaſt ſide of the city juſt without the gate, is a beautiful mall, conſiſting of ſeven ſtraight walks, two thouſand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

The number of ſtudents, one year with another, is ſeven or eight hundred in each of the univerſities of Leyden and Utrecht: in the other three they are not ſo numerous. Theſe ſeminaries of learning have each three or four divinity profeſſors, as many of phyſic, and two or three of law; beſides others of hiſtory, languages, and eloquence, or the *belles lettres*, and others of philoſophy, mathematics, the Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Hebrew and Oriental languages. The profeſſors in the univerſities of Holland are often men of great learning and eminence; as there is a kind of emulation between the ſtates of the different provinces, which ſhall have the greateſt men to adorn their univerſities, and attract numbers of ſtudents from all parts of Europe to enrich their towns: and, therefore they are ready to afford very liberal encouragement to able profeſſors, who are often invited from the univerſities of Germany.

The buildings of theſe univerſities are old, and rather mean; though the ſchools of Leyden are better, and more contiguous than the reſt. But the want of external pomp is more than compenſated by the variety of uſeful and ſolid learning taught in theſe ſeminaries. The profeſſors wear gowns when they read lectures, or preſide in public diſputations. The ſtudents wear no diſtinct habits, but are almoſt always in their morning gowns, in which they attend the colleges; and it is common for them, at Leyden, to walk in this dreſs in the ſtreets and mall without the city. There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from moſt countries in Europe at theſe ſeminaries of literature: and as every one may live as he pleaſes, without being obliged to be profuſe in his expences, or ſo much as quitting his night gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be ſeen here. The force of example is ſtrikingly exhibited at theſe univerſities: for frugality in expence, order, a compoſed behaviour, attention to ſtudy, and aſſiduity in all things, being the characteriſtics of the natives, ſtrangers who continue among them, ſoon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the ſtudents live as they pleaſe, and ſtudy as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their ſobriety and good manners, and the aſſiduity and ſucceſs with which they apply themſelves to their ſtudies. No oaths are impoſed, nor religious teſts; ſo that Roman Catholic parents, and even Jews, ſend their children here, with as little ſcruple as Proteſtants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be 17 ells in thickneſs; mounds, and canals,

canals, conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo much, are ſtupenduous and hardly to be equalled. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world: it ſtands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the univerſity of Leyden; ſuch as the effigies of a peaſant of Ruſſia, who ſwallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is ſaid to have lived eight years after it was cut out of his ſtomach; but the truth of this ſeems to be doubtful. A ſhirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muſcles and tendons of the human body curiouſly ſet up by profeſſor Stalpert Vander-Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Amſterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt beyond deſcription. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are ſtruck with the neatneſs and cleanlineſs that is every where obſerved within doors. This city, however, labours under two great diſadvantages; bad air, and the want of freſh wholeſome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in reſervoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam for commerce and wealth: its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the ſeat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the reſort of foreign ambaſſadors and ſtrangers of all diſtinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapneſs of its proviſions, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants, who are computed at 40,000. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their univerſities. Saardam, a village in North Holland contains about 900 wind-mills; partly corn-mills, partly ſaw and paper-mills, and mills for the making of white lead, &c. It is a wealthy trading place, and was the workſhop where Peter the Great of Muſcovy ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhip-building, and laboured as a common artizan. The upper part of Gelderland is ſubject to Pruſſia, and the capital city Gelder.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND MANNER OF TRAVELLING. The uſual way of paſſing from town to town is by covered boats, called treck-ſcuits, which are dragged along the canal by horſes, on a ſlow uniform trot, ſo that paſſengers reach the different towns where they are to ſtop, preciſely at the appointed inſtant of time. This method of travelling, though to ſtrangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of theſe canals an extenſive land commerce is carried on through the whole country, and as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at a ſmall expence into various parts of Germany, and the Auſtrian and French Netherlands. A treckſcuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruim; the firſt for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amſterdam and other large cities, a traveller is delighted with beholding the effects of an extenſive and flouriſhing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant, neat country-houſes, ſeated in the midſt of gardens and pleaſure grounds intermixed with figures, buſts, ſtatues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects for amuſement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather ſpend much of their time there

ſmoaking, reading, or viewing the paſſengers, to whom they appear complaiſant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would comprehend that of almoſt all Europe. There is ſcarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a ſtate to which they do not trade. In this, they are aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, their induſtry and frugality, and above all, by the water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. Their Eaſt India company has had the monopoly of the fine ſpices for more than a hundred years, and till the late war with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appear in greater ſplendor than the ſtadtholder; and ſome of the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother-country. Among the monopolies of the Eaſt-India company, the ſpice-trade, comprehending the articles of cloves, mace, nutmeg, cinnamon, &c. is the moſt valuable, and forms a very great branch of the Aſiatic as well as European commerce of Holland: 150,000lbs. of cloves are annually ſold in India, and 360,000 carried to Europe. The company pays on the ſpot only eight ſtivers per pound, but the freight and other charges raiſe this price to 43 ſtivers, and the company ſells it at no leſs than 75 ſtivers. Of nutmeg, the produce of the iſland of Banda, 250,000lbs. are ſold in Europe, and 100,000 in India: the prime coſt is ſomewhat more than one ſtiver per pound; including charges, the pound ſtands the company in about 25 ſtivers, and is ſold by the company at upwards of 50 ſtivers, weſt of the Cape of Good Hope; and at about 40 ſtivers, eaſt of it. In India 200,000lbs. of cinnamon are ſold, and 400,000 in Europe. The Java coffee is the beſt we know of, after that of Mecca, in Arabia. Other great branches of this trade are rice, cotton, pepper, &c. articles of great importance, but not in the excluſive poſſeſſion of the Dutch. They have other ſettlements in India, but none more pleaſant, heathful, or uſeful, than that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous for the ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome diſpoſitions to ſhip themſelves off to their ſettlement in India ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Not to mention their herring and whale fiſheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they excel at home in numberleſs branches of trade; ſuch as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delft-ware, finely refined ſalt; their oil-mills, and ſtarch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; and fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, either for ſhipping or houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather dreſſing; the great quantity of their coin and ſpecie, aſſiſted by their banks, eſpecially by that of Amſterdam; their Eaſt India trade; and their general induſtry and frugality.

This country affords a ſtriking proof, that unwearied and perſevering induſtry is capable of conquering every diſadvantage of climate and ſituation. The poſſeſſion of the very ſoil is diſputed by the ocean, which riſing conſiderably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by ſtrong and expenſive dykes, from overflowing a ſpot which ſeems to be ſtolen from its natural domains. Notwithſtanding theſe difficulties, which might ſeem unſurmountable to a leſs laborious race of inhabitants, the infinite labours of the patient Dutchmen have rendered this ſmall and ſeemingly inſignificant territory, in fact, one of the richeſt ſpots in Europe, both with reſpect to population and property. In other countries, which are poſſeſſed of a variety

variety of natural productions, we are not ſurpriſed to find manufactures employed in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the ſoil beſtows. But to ſee in a country like Holland, large woollen manufactures, where there are ſcarce any flocks; numberleſs artiſts employed in metals, where there is no mine; thouſands of ſaw-mills, where there is ſcarce any foreſt; an immenſe quantity of corn, exported from a country where there is not agriculture enough to ſupport one-half of its inhabitants, is what muſt ſtrike every attentive obſerver with admiration. It is greatly doubted, however, whether their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fiſheries, are in the ſame flouriſhing ſtate now as they were in the beginning of this century; and whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general induſtry of the inhabitants. Their commerce, &c. hath greatly ſuffered ſince their imprudent rupture with England.

The natural and political ſituation of the Dutch nation may be compared with the colonies of Canadian beavers, who by unwearied labour and mutual aſſiſtance, are enabled to build ſecure habitations on the banks of rapid rivers, and to form ſocieties rendered durable and invincible by the tie of firm union: yet their wonderful fabric would by diſſention and ſeparation, ſoon ſink into inſignificance or annihilation. When we conſider what Holland was before the union of Utrecht, and when we afterwards ſee the inhabitants of that ſwampy ſpot aſſume, for no inconſiderable period of time, the arbitrium of Europe and the Indies, it is not without regret we witneſs the decay of their power, that moſt admirable monument of human exertion and induſtry. An impartial obſerver, however, who cannot wiſh to ſee the benefits of activity confined to one ſpot, and extorted from the weakneſs and ignorance of other nations, will be comforted by the conſideration, that Holland's excluſive advantages are leſſened by the general increaſe of induſtry and happineſs throughout all the ſtates of Europe, and not by any of theſe great calamities or revolutions, which have put a period to the power of other commercial ſtates. Its decline is gentle and gradual: yet ſo high was the eminence Holland arrived at, that it is ſtill poſſeſſed of great power and conſequence.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the capital is the Eaſt India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immenſe wealth, having divided forty per cent, and ſometimes ſixty, about the year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided ſomewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch Weſt India company, the ſame year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amſterdam is thought to be inexhauſtibly rich, and is under an excellent direction: it is ſaid by ſir William Temple, to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomething more than current caſh is, in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which is kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amount to thirty-ſix (though others ſay only to thirty) millions ſterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This is a very intricate article; for though the United Provinces ſubſiſt in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or conſtitution independent of the others: this government is called the *ſtates* of that province; and the delegates from them form the *ſtates general*, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy is veſted; but though a province ſhould ſend two, or more delegates, yet ſuch province has no more than one voice in every reſolution; and before that reſolution can have the force of a law, it muſt be approved of by every province, and by every city and re-

public in that province. This formality, in times of great danger and emergency, has been ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province muſt be carried unanimouſly.

The *council of ſtate* conſiſts likewiſe of deputies from the ſeveral provinces: but its conſtitution is different from that of the ſtates-general: it is compoſed of twelve perſons, whereof Guelderland ſends two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Frieſland, one; Overyſſel, one; and Groningen, one. Theſe deputies, however, do not vote provincially, but perſonally. Their buſineſs is to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that are to be laid before the ſtates-general. The ſtates of the provinces are ſtyled "Noble and Mighty Lords," but thoſe of Holland, "Noble and Moſt Mighty Lords," and the ſtates-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "the Lords the States-General of the United Netherlands;" or, "their High Mightineſſes." Subordinate to theſe two bodies, is the chamber of accounts, which is likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admiralty forms a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. In Holland, the people have nothing to do either in chuſing their repreſentatives or their magiſtrates. In Amſterdam, which takes the lead in all public deliberations, the magiſtracy is lodged in thirty-ſix ſenators, who are choſen for life; and every vacancy among them is filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elects the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland.

I have mentioned the above particulars, becauſe, without a knowledge of them, it is impoſſible to underſtand the hiſtory of the United Provinces, from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the ſtadholderſhip was made hereditary in the male and female repreſentatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner ſuperſeded the conſtitution already deſcribed. The ſtadtholder is preſident of the ſtate of every province; and ſuch is his power and influence, that he can change the deputies, magiſtrates, and officers in every province and city. By this he has the moulding of the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, though he has no voice in it; in ſhort, though he has not the title, he has more real power and authority than ſome kings; for beſides the influence and revenue he derives from the ſtadtholderſhip, he has ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. At different periods the United Provinces have been without a ſtadtholder, but theſe periods were uſually very turbulent, and whenever a war broke out, the republic felt the neceſſity of re-eſtabliſhing this magiſtrate. Notwithſtanding the violence and complaints of the party, ſtyling themſelves patriots, it would ſeem that the office of ſtadtholder is eſſential to the conſtitution of the United Provinces. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, ſon of the late ſtadtholder, William Charles, who married Anne, princeſs royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland is a republic, yet its government is far from being of the popular kind; nor do the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at firſt view be apprehended. It is indeed, rather, an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people are not ſuffered to have the leaſt ſhare in any department of government, nor even in the choice of the deputies. It may alſo be obſerved, that very few perſons in this ſtate dare ſpeak their real ſentiments freely; and they are generally educated in principles ſo extremely cautious, that they cannot relinquiſh them when they enter more into public life.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeal lies from the petty and county courts; and it is ſaid that juſtice is no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Theſe taxes conſiſt of an almoſt general exciſe, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; ſo that the public revenue amounts annually to about four millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces are ſaid to contribute toward the public expence:

Of every million of ducats the Province of Holland contributes	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Frieſland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Guelderland	70,000
Overyſſel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amſterdam furniſhes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in theſe provinces are ſo heavy, and ſo many, that it is not without reaſon a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing which has eſcaped taxation there, is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandiſe are exceedingly low. Holland before the breach with England, was in a very flouriſhing condition, and its inhabitants ſtill continue to lend large ſums to moſt of the powers of Europe. The immenſe ſums in the Britiſh funds have made ſome people imagine that Holland labours under heavy debts; but the chief reaſon is, the ſtates only pay two and a half per cent. intereſt for money.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces in time of peace, commonly amount to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom ſerve in garriſons; many of them are Scots and Swiſs; and in time of war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom is the field-marſhal general. The marine force of the United Provinces uſed to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets: but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increaſe it; and they have great reſources for that purpoſe. According to the laſt accounts, their navy conſiſts of one ſhip of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of 50, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36, beſides veſſels of inferior force. But they have many ſhips upon the ſtocks, and their fleet will probably be much augmented, and in future be kept in better order.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the moſt powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; the firſt for Papiſts, and the ſecond branch for Proteſtants. This branch have a houſe at Utrecht, where they tranſact their buſineſs. The nobles of Holland, if they propoſe a ſon to be a knight, enter his name in the regiſter, and pay a large ſum of money to the uſe of the poor maintained by the order, and the candidate ſucceeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's ſide. The enſign is a croſs patee, enamelled white, ſurmounted with another, black; above the croſs is a ball twiſted, white and black. It is worn pendant to a broad black watered ribband, which is worn about the neck. The ſame croſs is embroidered on the left breaſt of the upper garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The enſigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlaſs, and with the other a bundle of ſeven arrows cloſe bound together, in alluſion to the ſeven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ creſcunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Auſtrian Netherlands.

William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces, was born in 1748, married in 1767 the princeſs Frederica of Pruſſia, born 1751. Their children are, Frederica Louiſa, born 1770—William Frederic, Hereditary Prince, born 1772—William George, born 1774.—The Stadtholder hath one ſiſter, Wilhelmina Carolina, born 1743, married to the prince of Naſſaw Wielbourgh.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	200	between	49 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth	200		2 and 7 eaſt longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces, on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliſh ſea, Weſt.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall be more particular in diſtinguiſhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.		Sq. M.
1. Dutch Brabant	Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom	N.	1374
	Grave	N. E.	
	Lillo, Steenbergen	N. W.	
2. Auſtrian Brabant	Bruſſels, E. lon. 4 deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50.		1892
	Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen	in the middle.	

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief Towns.	Limburg, E. lon. 6-5. N. lat. 50-37 ſubject to Auſtria.		312
	Maeſtricht, Dalem, Fauquemont, or Valkenburg	ſubject to the Dutch	300

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Auſtrian Luxemburg	Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45.	

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.		Sq. M.
French Luxemburg	——	Thionville Montmedy	S. E.	2408 292

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Auſtria.

Chief Towns.		Namur, on the Sambre and Meaſe, E. lon. 4-50. N. lat. 50-30. Charleroy on the Sambre.		425

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Subdiviſions		Chief Towns.		
Auſtrian Hainault	——	Mons. E. lon. 3,33. N. lat. 50-30. Aeth Enguien	in the middle	640
French Hainault	——	Valenciennes Bouchain Conde Landrecy	S. W.	800

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	——	Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15. Crevecour, S. of Cambray.		150

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	——	Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20. St. Omer, E. of Boulogne Aire, S. of St. Omer S. Venant, E. of Aire Bethune, S. E. of Aire Terouen, S. of St. Omer.		990

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders	——	Sluys, N. Axel, N. Hulſt, N. Sas van Ghent, N.		280
Auſtrian Flanders	——	Ghent, on the Scheld, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat. 51. Bruges Oſtend Newport Oudenard on the Scheld. Courtray Dizmude Ypres, N. of Liſle Tournay on the Scheld Menin on the Lis	N. W. near the ſea. on the Lis	1905

French

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
French Flanders	Liſle, W. of Tonrnay Dunkirk, on the coaſt E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gravelin, E. of Calais.	760

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ſeaſons more ſettled, both in winter and ſummer, than they are in England. The ſoil and its produce are rich, eſpecially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of paſture; and Flanders itſelf has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and ſometimes of England. The moſt barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Auſtrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and induſtry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richeſt and moſt beautiful ſpot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleaſantneſs of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has declined in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is ſtill a moſt deſirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, ſcarcely a ſingle hill in it. Brabant, and the reſt of the provinces, conſiſt of little hills and vallies, woods, incloſed grounds, and champaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maeſe, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel, Scheld, Lis, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent, and Oſtend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and brimſtone, are found in Luxemburgh, and Limburgh, as are ſome marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a ſpecies of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of foſſile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } The Flemings (for ſo the inhabitants of Flanders and the Auſtrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy, blunt, honeſt people; but their manners are ſomewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight deſperately in defence of their country; at preſent they make no great figure. The Auſtrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diverſions are the ſame with thoſe of the peaſants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders imitate the French in both theſe particulars. The Flemings on the frontiers of Holland dreſs like the Dutch boors, and their language is the ſame; but the better ſort of people ſpeak French, and dreſs in the ſame taſte.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Roman Catholic; but Proteſtants, and other ſects, are not moleſted.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are Cambray, Malines or Mecklin; the biſhoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremond.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS. } The ſociety of Jeſuits formerly produced the moſt learned men in the Auſtrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable ſettlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant

elegant hiſtorian and poet. The Flemiſh painters and ſculptors have great merit, and form a ſchool by themſelves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be ſufficiently admired. Flamingo, or the Flemings, models for heads, particularly thoſe of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engroſſed tapeſtry-weaving to themſelves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer's. The firſt was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoyed great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this univerſity has the privilege of preſenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in theſe provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are alſo found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, ſeen through all their cities, give evidence of their former grandeur. In 1607, ſome labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed ſeveral large volumes, publiſhed by different authors, but in times when the Auſtrian Netherlands were far more flouriſhing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but the town is now thinly inhabited. Bruges, formerly ſo noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconſiderable place. Oſtend is a tolerably convenient harbour for traders; and ſoon after the rupture between Great Britain and Holland, became more opulent and populous. In 1781 it was viſited by the emperor, who granted to it many privileges and franchiſes, and the free exerciſe of the proteſtant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a ſtrong garriſon town. The ſame may be ſaid of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Auſtrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of the Auſtrian Brabant, inſtead of its flouriſhing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Bruſſels retains ſomewhat of its ancient manufacture; and being the reſidence of the governor or viceroy of the Auſtrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapeſtry and thread-lace ſhop, with the houſes of ſome bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the firſt exploits of the Dutch, ſoon after they threw off the Spaniſh yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by ſinking veſſels, loaded with ſtones, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus ſhutting up the entrance of that river to ſhips of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-ſufferers in the cauſe of liberty, but they foreſaw that the proſperity of their own commerce was at ſtake.

It may be obſerved here, that every gentleman's houſe is a caſtle or *chateau*; and that there are more ſtrong towns in the Netherlands than in all the reſt of Europe; but ſince the decline of their trade, by the riſe of the Engliſh and Dutch, theſe towns are conſiderably diminiſhed in ſize, and whole ſtreets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the Netherlands, proviſions are extremely good and cheap. A ſtranger may dine in Bruſſels, on ſeven or eight diſhes of meat, for leſs than a ſhilling Engliſh. Travelling is ſafe, reaſonable, and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad cauſeway, and run for ſome miles in a ſtraight line, till they terminate with the view of ſome noble buildings. At Caſſel, in the French Netherlands, may be ſeen thirty-two towns, itſelf being on a hill.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Auſtrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithſtand-

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ing the boaſted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that ſpecies called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. Theſe manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Auſtrian Netherlands are ſtill conſidered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal houſe, as being ſovereign of the whole, is the ſole director and ſummoning prince. This circle contributes its ſhare to the impoſts of the empire, and ſends an envoy to the diet, but is not ſubject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, or regent, appointed by the court of Vienna. The face of an aſſembly, or parliament, for each province, is ſtill kept up, and conſiſts of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Bruſſels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor till of late ſeldom found any reſiſtance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, ſubject to the regent: and cauſes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] Theſe riſe from the demeſne lands and cuſtoms; but ſo much is the trade of the Auſtrian Flanders now reduced, that they are ſaid not to defray the expence of their government; but by the late reduction of the garriſons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a conſiderable revenue to the crown.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garriſons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Auſtrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of thoſe garriſons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miſerably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at leaſt 30,000 men, and in the time of war above 10,000 more. But the late emperor demoliſhed the fortifications of moſt of the places, and rendered the garriſons uſeleſs.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion ſable, and langued gules.

HISTORY.] The ſeventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies weſt of the Rhine, was called Gallia Belgica, by the Romans. About a century before the Chriſtian æra, the Battæ removed from Heſſe to the marſhy diſtrict bounded by the Rhine and the Maeſe. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great reſpect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military ſervices. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people, poſſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the empire. Batavia and Holland became independent on Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandſons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the ſupreme authority was lodged in the three united powers of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At laſt they were ſwallowed up by the houſe of Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them in the year 1477 to the houſe of Auſtria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon Philip II. who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples were forced by perſecution to join the male-contents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the *Council of Blood*, in order to ſuppreſs them; and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be

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their ſtadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters at firſt were thought ſo deſpicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage were ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent ſtate, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their ſea wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they juſtly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip; the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 hath been diſcuſſed in the hiſtory of that country, as alſo the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the Engliſh in the year 1780. As it was urged, that they refuſed to fulfil the treaties which ſubſiſted between them and Great Britain, ſo all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever exiſted. By the war, their trade ſuffered conſiderably, but Negapatnam, in the Eaſt Indies, is the only place not reſtored to them by the late peace.

Probably, to their ſeparation from Great Britain, may be attributed the recent differences between the States General and the emperor of Germany, who from the exhauſted ſtate of ſeveral of the European powers, ſeemed to have a favourable opportunity of accompliſhing his ambitious deſigns. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demoliſh the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended ſo deſperately in the time of queen Anne, and now he ſeemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their reſpective nations was propoſed to the ſtates; but before this could take place, he began to commit ſome acts of hoſtility, and extend his dominions a little way by way of preliminary. Two ſmall forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were ſeized upon, as well as ſome part of the marſhes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negociations, he alſo demanded that the Dutch guardſhip ſhould be removed from before fort Lillo, in acknowledgement that one of the prerogatives of his Imperial majeſty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negociations were opened at Bruſſels on the 24th of April 1784, when ſeveral other demands of ſmall portions of territory and little ſums of money were made; the moſt material requiſition being the town of Maeſtricht, and its territory. For ſome time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters ſeemed faſt tending towards an open rupture. On the 23d of Auguſt, he delivered in his *ultimatum* to the commiſſioners at Bruſſels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maeſtricht, in conſideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt in both its branches to the ſea; and in token of his confidence in the good intentions of the ſtates, he determined to conſider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any inſult on his flag in the execution of theſe purpoſes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hoſtility, and a formal declaration of war on the part

of the Republic. In conſequence of this obſtinacy, his Imperial majeſty ſent ſome ſhips up the Scheldt to Antwerp; but the Dutch ſtopped them on their paſſage, and anſwered his complaints and menaces by the following manifeſto, referring to the moſt important events in their hiſtory.

"That after a war of eighty years continuance, their High Mightineſſes concluded a treaty of peace at Munſter, January 30, 1648, with Philip the Fourth, king of Spain, in which treaty the States were denominated Free and Sovereign States, Provinces, and Countries, to which the ſaid king had no right, now or in future, either himſelf, or his ſucceſſors and deſcendents; and among other matters, it was agreed by Art. XIV. that the Scheldt ſhould remain ſhut by their High Mightineſſes, in conſequence of which, that river has remained ever ſince guarded by two forts, Lillo and Lieſkenſhoek, aſſiſted by guard ſhips.

That between that time and 1702, their High Mightineſſes concluded an alliance, September 1701, between his Imperial Majeſty Leopold the Firſt, and the King of Great Britain, with the ſpecial intention, as expreſſed in that alliance, to procure a proper barrier in the Spaniſh Netherlands, as they had been then called.

That ſoon after this was concluded, their High Mightineſſes were involved in an expenſive and deſtructive war, at the end of which, in a treaty of peace, they agreed with his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty (April 11, 1713) that, in conſequence of this peace, the houſe of Auſtria ſhould enter into the poſſeſſion of the ſaid Spaniſh Netherlands, to enjoy thoſe entirely for ever after, according to the ſucceſſion of that houſe, provided that the ſaid Spaniſh Netherlands continued to be the *barrier* and ſecurity to the States-General.

That after this their High Mightineſſes as well as his Britannic Majeſty, November 14, 1715, concluded a ſimilar barrier treaty with Charles the Sixth, and upon this footing and condition the ſaid Spaniſh Netherlands were granted to his Imperial Majeſty.

That ſo far from their infringing on this treaty in any reſpect concerning the Scheldt, which was ſettled by the above mentioned Munſter treaty, it was agreed upon Art. XVII. of the ſaid treaty, that they ſhould retain the poſſeſſion of the Scheldt, and the full and entire dominion and ſovereignty of all the places and diſtricts there ſpecified; and laſtly, by Art. XXVI. it was agreed that every thing ſhould remain without change, diminution, alteration, or augmentation, on whatever pretence, unleſs their Imperial and Catholic Majeſties in the Auſtrian Netherlands, and thoſe of the United Provinces, ſhould remain exactly as before eſtabliſhed, and as expreſſed in the articles of the treaty of Munſter, which were confirmed by this freſh agreement.

That afterwards ſome difficulties aroſe concerning the performance of Art. XVII. of the barrier treaty, but that theſe were ſettled between the three contracting powers, December 22, 1718, by another convention, in which the ceſſion of the lands and diſtricts pertaining to the poſſeſſion of the Scheldt, was ſpecially and expreſsly confirmed and made clear.

That then his Imperial Majeſty Charles the Sixth, and the king of Great Britain, concluded a new treaty at Vienna (March 16, 1731), by which an agreement is made to maintain the Pragmatic Sanction, and that all trade and navigation, in particular between the Auſtrian Netherlands and the Eaſt Indies ſhould ceaſe for ever.

That in the war concerning the ſucceſſion which followed, their High Mightineſſes fulfilled their engagements which they had entered into *for the preſervation of the Pragmatic Sanction*, and aſſiſted the houſe of Auſtria with all their forces, but the conſequences were fatal to them, as almoſt all their barrier places were deſtroyed, and the Republic itſelf brought to the brink of ruin. And afterwards the ſaid barrier places not only remained without repair, excepting one, the city and caſtle of Na-

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mur (the expences of which were defrayed by their High Mightineſſes), but certain impoſts were laid on the inhabitants of the Auſtrian Netherlands, in a manner directly contrary to Art. XXVI. of the barrier treaty; until, at length, not to detail leſſer wrongs, in the year 1781, while the Republic was unhappily involved in a ruinous war with the kingdom of Great Britain, it pleaſed the reigning emperor of the Romans to deſtroy entirely all the fortifications of the barrier places, Namur only excepted, and to demand that the States ſhould remove its troops, then in garriſon. That no ſooner was this complied with, than the ſame requiſition was made in regard to the city and caſtle of Namur itſelf.

That there aroſe ſeveral diſputes, on account of their making uſe of the environs of theſe forts on the ſame footing as before, eſpecially with regard to the villagers of Namur, Polder, and Doel, the ſovereignty of which is expreſsly granted to their High Mightineſſes, in terms the moſt plain, by Art. XVII. of the barrier treaty, and by Art. I. of Convention of December 22, 1718.

That his Imperial Majeſty, in the month of November, 1783, forcibly, and without the leaſt previous complaint, took poſſeſſion of the fort of St. Donat, although that fort was ceded moſt expreſsly to their High Mightineſſes by the ſaid treaty of 1715, and by the ſubſequent Convention, and although eſpecially at that time in the hands of a detachment of troops belonging to the States.

That (to omit in ſilence ſeveral other unjuſt pretences to which their High Mightineſſes often replied with the greateſt eaſe) it was inſiſted on the part of his Imperial Majeſty, in April of this year, that the guardſhip belonging to the Republic, which had been ſtationed off Lillo ſince the peace of Munſter, 1648, that is 136 years, ſhould be removed, his Majeſty pretending that the Lower Scheldt, as far as Saftingen, belonged to him.

That, in order to avoid all manner of violence, their High Mightineſſes preferred to hold out to his Majeſty their juſt right to keep a guardſhip there, but, in the mean time, it ſhould be removed, while they waited for the conſequences of this avowal, from before the territory which never before had been diſputed to their High Mightineſſes, that is, Saftingen.

That, in the mean time, Commiſſioners being named by their High Mightineſſes at the inſtance and requeſt of his Imperial Majeſty, in order to end all the diſputes which then were between them, a Memorial was given to them, entitled, A liſt of the claims which his Imperial Majeſty preferred againſt the Republic.

That upon this, a proper anſwer was ſent to the government of the Auſtrian Netherlands, in which the novelty and ill foundation of almoſt all thoſe claims, were demonſtrated, and ſeveral contra-claims were held forth, founded on the juſt right and title which their High Mightineſſes poſſeſſed; the whole, however, containing the moſt convincing proofs of the unceaſing condeſcenſion, which their High Mightineſſes wiſhed to obſerve, as much as poſſible, in all their proceedings.

That, pending theſe negociations, and in direct contradiction to the expreſs ſtipulation, Art. V. of the treaty of Vienna, by which the Auſtrians were not permitted to trade in the Eaſt Indies, five ſhips from the Eaſt Indies were ſent to Oſtend, without any reaſon, or pretence whatever, on the ſubject being offered on the part of his Imperial Majeſty."

In anſwer to their conduct in ſtopping the Imperial ſhips, which the emperor ſtyles an inſult to his flag, and by which he declares them to have begun hoſtilities, the Dutch Miniſters at Bruſſels, in a paper delivered to that Court, proteſt, " That as their ſole aim was to ſupport their uncontrovertible right, they cannot be ſuſpect-

ed of any hoſtile aggreſſion, which is the leſs to be laid to their charge, as they poſitively declared not to ſtand any ways anſwerable for the conſequences that may enſue from the particular conſtruction which his Imperial Majeſty may be pleaſed to put upon the affair. The Republic, far from being conſidered in the light of a power having acted offenſively, ſtill perſiſt in their peaceable diſpoſitions; but if unfortunately ſuch diſpoſitions can have no influence on the mind of his Imperial Majeſty, though the States ſtill preſerve ſome hopes to the contrary, the Republic will find itſelf in the diſagreeable neceſſity of having recourſe to ſuch means as the rights of nature and nations entitle them to; hoping that Divine Providence, and the applauding voice of the neutral powers, will aſſiſt in maintaining the Republic in the juſt defence of its deareſt rights."

Great preparations were made for immediate hoſtilities againſt the Dutch, and ſeveral hundred of the Imperialiſts, with ſome field pieces, advancing towards the counterſcarpe of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the ſluices to be opened November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat country round the forts on the Scheldt, to preſerve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themſelves, in caſe they ſhould be called forth to open a campaign in the next ſpring; but France and Pruſſia interpoſed as negociators and mediators; and ſucceeded in bringing about a reconciliation.

During the progreſs of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly diſtreſſed by the moſt unhappy annimoſities within themſelves, which it may be proper in this place briefly to ſtate. The continued ſeries of loſſes which they had ſuſtained in the late war with Great Britain was particularly diſgraceful to the republic. All their ſettlements in the Weſt Indies fell into the hands of the Britiſh without reſiſtance; their ſhips were captured and trade ruined; while the diſaſters of the war excited the animoſity of the two factions againſt each other to the higheſt degree. The Patriots, or ariſtocratic party attributed theſe defects to the Stadtholder, who openly expreſſed his predilection for the Engliſh at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the Patriots now very artfully reverted. They accuſed him of having adviſed the aggreſſion of the Engliſh, and of contributing to their ſucceſs by treachery. The evident inequality of the ſtruggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards, and arſenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of ſtate on the ſubject of that deficiency were forgotten; and the wilful miſconduct of the Stadtholder was boldly alledged by the Patriots as the ſole cauſe of that miſerable ſucceſſion of defeat and diſgrace, which immediately followed the commencement of hoſtilities. Whilſt theſe were the recriminations of the Patriots, the monarchical, or Orange party accuſed their antagoniſts of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

The alterations in the Dutch conſtitution projected by the Patriots, were as follows: "That the *forms* of the preſent government ſhould continue to ſubſiſt, but that the States ſhould become in every reſpect completely independent of the Stadtholder; and that for this purpoſe he ſhould no longer enjoy a ſeat in any of the colleges in the republic. That the Stadtholder's right of recommending candidates for the vacant magiſtracies in the towns of Holland ſhould ceaſe. That the charges of Stadtholder and Captain-General ſhould, if poſſible, be ſeparated, and conferred on different perſons; or that, at leaſt, the titles only ſhould be reſerved to the Prince of Orange, and the offices be executed, as in the time of the De Witts, by deputies choſen for the purpoſe. In general, that the Stadtholder ſhould poſſeſs ſuch powers only as might enable him to execute the orders of the States. That the hereditary Stadtholderate ſhould continue in the Prince of Orange on his acceptance

acceptance of theſe terms; but that in caſe of his refuſal, the different ſtates ſhould be at liberty to elect another Stadtholder."

In the aſſembly of the ſtates, it was found that the ſtates themſelves were proper ſovereigns of the country, that the Stadtholder was no more than their ſervant, and that whatever powers they might communicate to him were revokeable at pleaſure; but with regard to the garriſon of the Hague in particular, they affirmed that the Provincial States had never given it into his hands. In purſuance of this idea, it was next directed, that on the commencement of the year 1786, the arms of the Houſe of Orange ſhould be taken out of the enſigns of the troops of Holland, and thoſe of the province ſubſtituted in their room; that the Preſident of the Provincial States ſhould on all occaſions receive the military honours, and ſalute the garriſon of the Hague, as the Preſident of the States already did; and that no other officer of the province ſhould be entitled to that diſtinction. The next ſteps were to diſmiſs the body-guards of the prince, though this was afterwards qualified by allowing them to extinguiſh themſelves, and to enliſt no more in the room of them who died.

Theſe proceedings were by no means agreeable to the inhabitants of the Hague, who had all along ſhewn the greateſt attachment to the ſtadtholder, and they ſoon prepared a petition to the ſtates of Holland, requeſting them to interpoſe their good offices with the prince of Orange to induce him to return from Breda, to which he had retired on the 14th of September, 1785, to the place of his uſual reſidence. The ſtates, however, ſuppreſſed this petition as ſoon as they knew that it exiſted; and the affairs of the ſtadtholder appeared to be in the moſt deſperate ſituation.

The new king of Pruſſia offered his mediation, but that being refuſed he applied to the court of France to know whether they would co-operate with him in his pacific intention. On receiving a favourable anſwer to this, both monarchs united their efforts to reconcile the contending parties, but all in vain; ſo that both ambaſſadors departed from the Hague, in the month of January, 1787.

This unfortunate event produced various accuſations and vindications between the two parties, with a long train of negociations, reſolutions, and animoſities, until at laſt, in the month of May, the ſtadtholder gave orders to ſeize on Vreeſwick, a poſt of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its ſituation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing alſo the ſluices by which both the provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a ſkirmiſh between the troops of the ſtadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other important hoſtilities took place; but while the military operations were carried on in ſuch a languid manner, a violent tumult took place at Amſterdam, which as uſual, was excited by the partiſans of the ſtadtholder, in which ſeveral perſons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of moſt of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the ſtadtholder; but notwithſtanding this apparent advantage, and ſome others which afterwards took place, the diſpute ſtill continued with extreme violence, inſomuch that the princeſs of Orange herſelf was ſeized, and detained a priſoner a night by the patriots.

Theſe moſt turbulent commotions were, however, at laſt happily ſettled by the king of Pruſſia, who, for this purpoſe, marched an army into the territories of the United States, and took poſſeſſion of the city of Rotterdam, and ſome other places without reſiſtance. This overawed both parties to ſuch a degree, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the ſtates of Holland. By this the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the ſtadtholderſhip, as well as the

the hereditary government of each province, in the houſe of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives ſettled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to diſturb the domeſtic tranquility of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appear to be effectually guarded by the cloſe union that ſubſiſts between theſe two important powers.

Here we ſhall conclude the hiſtory of the Seven United Provinces whoſe inhabitants ſo gloriouſly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the cauſe of liberty; and whoſe brave, vigorous, and ſucceſsful ſtruggles in this noble conteſt, againſt the tyranny and ferocious bigotry of Philip II. will be always remembered with pleaſure, whilſt men have a juſt ſenſe of the natural rights and liberties of mankind, which will be, it is hoped, ſo long as human nature exiſts.

After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained poſſeſſed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706. After which, Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their ſovereign; and his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, remained poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburgh; and would have ſtill poſſeſſed them, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the Engliſh in favour of the houſe of Auſtria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be ſeen in the preceding general table of diviſions.

It was not long after the ſettlement of the diſturbances in Holland, that the provinces of the Netherlands, belonging to the emperor, determined to aſſert their liberty. As no great friendſhip had ſubſiſted between the States and his Imperial majeſty, it was natural to ſuppoſe that the diſcontented ſubjects of the latter would find a ready aſylum in the territories of the Dutch. The quarrel originated, like thoſe in other countries, about the perogatives aſſumed by the emperor, and which were more extenſive than his ſubjects wiſhed to allow. A letter concerning this had been publiſhed as early as the 13th of December, 1787, by count Trautmanſdorff, the Imperial miniſter to the council of Brabant; in which province the diſputes had originally commenced. In this performance, the count took notice of the little confidence they put in his majeſty, and commanded them in the moſt expreſs terms, "to hold no connection, relation, correſpondence, or keep up any underſtanding whatever on public affairs, either in a body or by commiſſioners, with the ſtates or their deputies, without the previous knowledge, or expreſs command of his majeſty, or his repreſentative." This not proving effectual, and the emperor making uſe of force to aſſert his uſual preogatives, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the diſcontented Brabanters. They firſt began to aſſemble in Dutch Brabant, in the cloſe of the ſummer of 1789, and being well received, took up their head-quarters at Tilbourg. To this place they invited their diſcontented countrymen to join them, and promiſed them the pay of 14 ſols *per* day for their ſupport. From whatever ſource theſe patriots derived their finances, it ſoon became evident that they were well ſupplied; for this ſum was punctually paid, and they had great plenty of proviſions; ſo that, being protected by the ſtates-general, they ſoon became very ſtrong, and in a very ſhort time manifeſted a deſign to aſſert their liberty by force of arms. Their firſt exploits were the taking of two forts belonging to the emperor, ſituated between Antwerp and Bergen-op-Zoom. They ſeized alſo M. Crumpepin, chancellor of

Brabant, threatening to hang him up by way of retaliation, for the firſt perſon of their party to whom the emperor ſhould offer any violence.

On the part of his Imperial majeſty, the inſurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was iſſued by count Trautmanſdorff, governor of Bruſſels, intimating that no quarter ſhould be given them, and that the villages, in which they concealed themſelves, ſhould be ſet on fire. General Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become maſter of them by aſſault, and would put every ſoul he found in them to the ſword. A reſolution was taken by the government of Bruſſels to diſarm all the inhabitants of the Low Countries, excepting ſuch as were in the actual ſervice of the emperor. A proclamation was accordingly iſſued forth, commanding all perſons to deliver up their arms within twenty-four hours, under pain of being accounted favourers of ſedition. All who ſhould be taken with arms in their hands, in any caſe of riot or inſurrection, to be to death on the ſpot, without any trial. All the nobility and abbots who had left the country (and which they had done in great numbers) were commanded to return under pain of perpetual baniſhment, and confiſcation of eſtate.

In oppoſition to this ſanguinary proclamation, the patriots iſſued a manifeſto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority by reaſon of his various oppreſſions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the conſtitution. Baniſhment was threatened to ſuch as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though ſtrict orders were given that no crowds or mobs ſhould be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing ſo, ſhould be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogſtraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. The king of Pruſſia was at that time aſſembling an army, with which it was thought he deſigned to take ſome active part in the preſent affair; but he publiſhed a manifeſto, declaring that he did not mean to interfere in the troubles of the Low Countries; but as a director of the circle of the empire, to take notice of thoſe which had happened in the biſhopric of Liege, and Wutzlar. Thus the emperor and the patriots were left to decide their quarrel by themſelves; and in this conteſt the latter diſplayed a reſolution, as well as power to accompliſh their purpoſes, which was by no means generally expected. Almoſt every town in Auſtrian Flanders ſhewed its determination to oppoſe the emperor, and the moſt enthuſiaſtic attachment to military affairs diſplayed itſelf in all ranks of men. Even the eccleſiaſtics manifeſted their valour on the occaſion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was ſoon raiſed, which after ſome ſucceſsful ſkirmiſhes, made themſelves maſters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Oſtend; ſo that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Bruſſels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loſs of one thouſand men, beſides women and children. It reflects indelible diſgrace on the imperial character, as well as the commander of the troops, that they committed the moſt dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and deſtroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the mercileſs ſavages not only deſtroyed the men, but killed women and ſucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them againſt the walls of the houſes. By theſe monſtrous cruelties they enſured ſucceſs to their adverſaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almoſt inſtantly declared in their favour. They publiſhed a memorial for their juſtification, in which they gave, as reaſons for their conduct, the many oppreſſive edicts with which they had been harraſſed ſince the

the death of the empreſs-queen; the unwarrantable extenſion of the imperial prerogative, contrary to his coronation-oath, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his ſubjects by forcibly entering their houſes at midnight, and ſending them priſoners to Vienna, to periſh in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly maſſacred his ſubjects; he had conſigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a deſign of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. Theſe things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and eaſily impoſe upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation rouſed by repeated injuries, and animated by deſpair, would riſe ſuperior to thoſe laſt efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reaſons they declared themſelves INDEPENDENT, *and for ever releaſed from the houſe of* AUSTRIA.

The emperor now, perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, publiſhed proclamations of imdemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmoſt contempt. The patriots made the moſt rapid conqueſts, inſomuch, that before the end of the year they were maſters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg. The emperor next declared himſelf willing to treat with thoſe whom he ſeemed not to be able to ſubdue; but the ſtates publiſhed a paper by way of preliminary, which ſeemed to give very little hope of ſucceſs to the negociation. In this they inſiſted, 1. That the plenipotentary, attended by two deputies from the ſtates, ſhould repair to thoſe places in the town of Ghent, "where that *ſanguinary executioner* Dalton ordered, ſaw, and executed robbery, incendiary, rape, profanation, murder, and maſſacre." 2. The corpſes of thoſe "immolated to the fury of the ferocious ſervants of the Nero their maſter, to be digged up and expoſed to his excellency's view; that he might make a terrific report to the court of Vienna; and not only the banks of the Danube, but the whole world might be ſtruck with horror." Laſtly, when his heart was ſuppoſed to be ſufficiently impreſſed with this dreadful ſpectacle, it was to be notified to him in the aſſembly of the ſtates, to which he was to be conducted, that "it was impoſſible to treat or make any conventions with a ſovereign perjured and perfidious, who had repeatedly violated the moſt ſacred of all human ties, though ſecured by the moſt ſolemn treaties with foreign powers."

A new act of union was eſtabliſhed between the Belgic provinces, to which all thoſe formerly ſubject to Auſtria unanimouſly acceded. It originated between thoſe of Flanders and Brabant, and was to the following purpoſe: That neither party ever enter into any compromiſe with their former ſovereign, but by common agreement. They agreed to change this union into one common ſovereignty between the two ſtates; ſo that the whole power ſhould be centered in a congreſs compoſed of deputies named by both parties. The power of this ſovereign aſſembly to be confined to the ſole object of common defence, to the power of making peace and war, the ſupport of a national militia, the fortifications neceſſary for the defence of the country, the contracting alliance with foreign powers,&c. On the fourth of January 1790, the ſtates of Brabant were opened with great ceremony at Ghent; they were declared independent, and the emperor to have forfeited all right to the ſovereignty of that country. On the 11th, a ſolemn and general treaty of union was ſigned by the deputies from Brabant, Guelders, Flanders, Weſt Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Tournay, with the territory depending on it, called Tourneſis, and Malines.

Notwithſtanding they thus appeared for ever ſeparated from the houſe of Auſtria, yet the death of Joſeph, which happened ſoon after, produced ſuch a change in the conduct of government, as gave a veryunexpected turn to the ſituation of affairs, and

the mild and pacific diſpoſition of Leopold who ſucceeded his brother, the conciliating meaſures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great Britain, Pruſſia, and Holland, gave a very different turn to the affairs in theſe provinces; and a convention, which was ſigned at Reichenbach on the 27th of July 1790, by the abovementioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his Imperial Majeſty, by a general amneſty, and total forgiveneſs of whatever had paſſed during the troubles, under the guarantee of the ſaid powers. Since this time it has been the conſtant labour of the ſaid plenipotentiaries, in concert with the Imperial miniſter, to bring the Belgic Provinces to a proper ſubmiſſion, and to reſtore them to the Auſtrian dominions, on condition of the re-eſtabliſhment of their ancient privileges and conſtitution; but which they had been unable finally to accompliſh without the aid of his Imperial majeſty's troops.

This deſirable buſineſs having been fulfilled, according to the management of the mediating powers, it became further neceſſary for the confirmation of his Imperial Majeſty's authority over the ſaid provinces, for the ſecuriry of thoſe provinces, and for the mutual intereſt of the mediating powers, that the bonds of friendſhip ſhould be reciprocally more cloſely drawn between them; for which purpoſe the following articles have been unanimouſly agreed to by the ſaid miniſters, in virtue of the powers with which they had been inveſted.

I. That on receiving the uſual homage of the Belgic Provinces, his Imperial Majeſty ſhall confirm them in all the conſtitutional privileges and legal cuſtoms which they had enjoyed by the acts of inauguration of the Emperor Charles VI. and the empreſs Maria Thereſa.

II. His Imperial majeſty conſents to bury in oblivion all the exceſſes that have been committed during the late troubles, and to comprize them in a general amneſty, which ſhall be inſtantly made public; with the exception of a very few individuals, whoſe conduct has precluded them from every claim to this general pardon; and of thoſe culprits, whoſe crimes are diſtinct from the diſorders committed during the late inſurrection. At the ſame time, it is to be underſtood that his Imperial majeſty does not by this general amneſty mean either to acknowledge or confirm thoſe uſurpations which, during the troubles, have been made on the rights and prerogatives of his ſovereign power.

III. His Imperial Majeſty, during the conference at Reichenbach, having been diſpoſed to grant certain conceſſions, not ulteriorly affecting the Imperial conſtitution, in caſe that ſubmiſſion ſhould precede compulſion, has yet, at the inſtance of the mediating powers, granted thoſe conceſſions which he had been previouſly diſpoſed to grant of his own accord, as the reward of a voluntary ſubmiſſion, and which are contained in a letter from his Imperial majeſty's plenipotentiary to the mediating miniſters, dated at the Hague, the 29th of October, 1790; of which the following are the principal heads, viz. that certain points of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, in which ſome alterations had been made during the laſt reign, ſhall be placed under the regulation of the biſhops, reſtoring to them all the powers which they exerciſed at the termination of the reign of the late empreſs Maria Thereſa; that as it would be impoſſible to re-eſtabliſh the ſuppreſſed convents on their former foundation; his majeſty promiſes to apply the revenues of thoſe convents to ſuch pious purpoſes as ſeem to be moſt analagous to the intention of their pious founders; and to revive and confirm in their rights ſuch ſuppreſſed abbeys as anciently enjoyed the privilege of ſending deputies to the ſtates;—that his majeſty, relying on the patriotiſm and valour of the Belgic Provinces, renounces every pretenſion to keep a *ſtanding army* directly or indirectly, and will not attempt to raiſe any troops in the provinces, but with the conſent of the ſtates, and as exigencies

may require;—that, confiding in the love of his ſubjects, and their generous efforts for the ſupport of his empire, he engages *never to levy any* TAX upon them, on any pretext whatever, without the full conſent and concurrence of the ſtates;—that the judges of the ſuperior courts are confirmed in their ſtations, agreeable to the conſtitutions of each province on this head;—that the diploma granted by the emperor Charles VI. to the ſuperior tribunals be made irrevocable;—that his majeſty will hear and conſult with the ſtates and tribunals on the ſubject of any new and general law; as alſo, on the ſubject of penal laws;—that his majeſty engages to re-eſtabliſh the organization of the government, and chamber of accounts on the ſame footing as in the reign of the late empreſs, reſerving to himſelf the right of making ſuch changes as may become indiſpenſably neceſſary, yet always with attention to the public voice, and the right of the conſtitution;—that the commander in chief of the troops, and the miniſter plenipotentiary, ſhall be under the command of the governor general, and that it be eſtabliſhed as an immutable rule that the ſoldiery ſhall never be called out againſt the citizens, but for the actual ſupport of the laws and at the requiſition of the magiſtrates;—that his majeſty will make no alterations in the forms of judicature, but in conſequence of previous conſultation with the ſtates, and with their full conſent;—that for the prevention of any miſunderſtanding, commiſſaries be appointed by the prince and the people; and if their determination ſhould not prove ſatisfactory, then his majeſty and the ſtates ſhall each appoint an equal number of perſons as arbiters, whoſe deciſion ſhall be concluſive, and finally binding; and who, on ſuch occaſion, ſhall be abſolved from the influence of any oaths that might tend to affect their impartial determination.

IV. Their majeſties of Great Britain and Pruſſia, and the States General of Holland, become in the moſt ſolemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his ſucceſſors for the ſovereighty of the Belgic Provinces, now re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of ſigning, which was executed at the Hague on the 10th of December, 1790.

GERMANY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	600	between	5 and 19 Eaſt lon.	181,631.
Breadth	520		45 and 55 North lat.	

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly ſo called, is bounded by the German ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the Eaſt; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the Weſt, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine Moſelle, and the Maeſe.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The diviſions of Germany are variouſly laid down even by modern writers. I ſhall therefore adhere to thoſe moſt generally received. Germany was formerly divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Nor-

thern. The emperor Maximilian, predeceſſor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the diviſion was confirmed in the diet of Nuremburg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourſelves to nine of thoſe diviſions, as they now ſubſiſt.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the ſouth.

The northern circles — —	Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Weſtphalia	
The circles in the middle — —	Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia	
The ſouthern circles — —	Auſtria Bavaria Swabia	

1. Upper SAXONY Circle.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Pomerania, in the North.	Pruſſian Pomerania, N. E.	Stettin. E. lon. 14-50 N. lat. 53-30	4820
	Swediſh Pomerania, N. W.	Stralfund	2991
Brandenburg in the middle, ſub. to its own elector the K. of Pruſſia.	Altmark, weſt Middlemark Newmark, eaſt.	Stendel Berlin, Potſdam Francfort, Cuſtrin.	10910
Saxony, Proper, in the ſouth, ſub. to its own elector.	Duchy of Saxony, N. Luſatia, marq. eaſt Miſnia, marq. ſouth.	Wittenberg Bautzen, Gorlitz Dreſden, E. lon. 13-36. N. lat. 51. Meiſſen	7500
Thuringia, langr. weſt — —		Erfurt	3620
The duchies of —	Saxe Meinungen Saxe Zeitz — Saxe Altenburg, S. E. Saxe Weimar, weſt Saxe Gotha, weſt Saxe Eiſnach, S. W. Saxe Saalfeldt — (Subject to their own dukes.)	Meinungen Zeitz Altenburg Weimar Gotha Eiſnach Saalfeldt	240 1500
The counties of —	Schwartſburg, W. Belchingen, N. Mansfeldt — (Subject to their reſpective counts.)	Schwartſburg Belchingen Mansfeldt.	96
The duchies of —	Hall, middle ſubject to Pruſſia Saxe Naumburg, ſubject to its own duke —	Hall Naumburg	210
The counties of —	Stolberg, north-weſt Hohenſtein, weſt	Stolberg Northhauſen	
Principality of —	Anhault, north —	Deſſau, Zerbſt Bernberg, Kothen.	966
Biſhoprick of —	Saxe Hall, weſt —	Hall.	

Divisions	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns	Sq. M.
Duchy of	Voigtland, south, subject to the elector of Saxony		Plawen	696
	Merſburgh, middle, subject to the elector of Saxony		Merſburg.	336

2. LOWER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Holſtein D. north of the Elbe.	Holſtein Proper N.	Partly ſub. to Denmark, and partly to the duke of Holſtein Gottorp.	Kiel, ſub. to Holſtein Gottorp	1850
	Ditmarſh, weſt		Meldorp ſubject to	
	Stormaria, ſouth		Glucſtat ſ Denmark.	
	Hamburg, a ſovereign ſtate		Hamburg, E. L. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city.	
	Wagerland, eaſt		Lubec, an imperial city.	
Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, ſubject to Hanover			Lauenburg.	450
Subject to the duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle.	D. Brunſwic Proper.	middle	Brunſwic, E. L. 10-30. N. Lat. 52-50.	860
	D. Wolfenbuttle		Wolfenbuttle	
	C. Rheinſtein, ſouth		Rheinſtein	
	C. Blanckenburg		Blanckenburg	
Subject to the elector of Hanover, K. of G. Britain.	D. Calenberg		Hanover	8024
	D. Grubenhagen		Grubenhagen	
	Gottingen		Gottingen	
Luneburg D. ſub. to Hanover.	D. of Luneburg Proper		Luneburg	
	D. Zell		Zell, E. lon. 10 N. lat. 52-52.	
Bremen D. and Verden D. ſub. to Hanover, north	—		Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30. an imperial city.	2040
	—		Verden.	693
Mecklenburg D.	D. Schwerin, north, ſubject to its duke	—	Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54.	4400
	D. Guſtrow, north, ſubject to its duke	—	Guſtrow.	
Hilderſheim biſhoprick, in the middle, ſubject to its biſhop	—	—	Hilderſheim, an imperial city.	1302
Magdeburg duchy, ſouth-eaſt, ſubject to the king of Pruſſia	—	—	Magdeburg.	1535
Halberſtadt duchy, ſubject to Pruſſia, ſouth-eaſt			Halberſtadt	450

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

North Diviſion.	Embden, C. or Eaſt Frieſland, ſubject to the king of Pruſſia		Embden, an imperial city	720
	Oldenburg, C.	ſub. to the K. of Den.	Oldenburg	
	Delmenhurſt		Delmenhurſt	
	Hoye	ſubject to Hanover	Hoye	624
	Diepholt		Diepholt	220

Weſt-

Divisions.	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Western Division.	Munster B. sub. to its bishop		Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52.	3600
	Paderborn B. sub. to its bishop		Paderborn	800
	Osnaburg B. sub. to its bishop		Osnaburg	870
	Lippe C. sub. to its count		Lippe, Pyrmont	400
	Minden D.	sub. to Prus.	Minden	495
	Ravensberg C.	sub. to Prus.	Ravensberg	525
	Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologn		Arensburg	1444
	Tecklenburg C.	sub. to their respective counts.	Tecklenburg	840
	Ritberg C.	sub. to their respective counts.	Ritberg	120
	Schawenburg C.	sub. to their respective counts.	Schawenberg	
Middle Division.	Cleves D. sub. to the king of Prussia		Cleves E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40	630
	Berg D.	sub. to the elector Palatine	Dusseldorf	
	Juliers D.	sub. to the elector Palatine	Juliers, Aix	1300
	Mark C. subject to Prussia		Ham	980
	Liege B. sub. to its own bishop		Liege, E. lon. 5-56. N. lat. 50-40	1942
			Huy	
	Bentheim C. sub. to Hanover		Bentheim	418
	Steinfort C. sub. to its count		Steinfort	114

4. Upper RHINE Circle.

Hesse	Hesse Cassel, landg. N.		Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20.	3500
	Hesse Marpurgh. landg. N.		Marpurgh	
	Hesse Darmstadt, landg.		Darmstadt	396

Each of the above subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves.

	Hesse Homberg		Homberg	
	Hesse Rhinefeldt		Rhinefeldt	180
	Wonfield		Wonfield	
Counties in the Wetteraw, south.	Nassau Dillenburgh	Each county subject to its own count of the house of Nassau.	Dillenburg	1200
	Nassau Diets		Diets	
	Nassau Hadamar		Hadamar	
	Nassau Kerberg		Kerberg	
	Nassau Siegen		Siegen	
	Nassau Idstein		Idstein	
	Nassau Weilburg		Weilburg	
	Nassau Wisbaden		Wisbaden	
	Nassau Bielsteid		Bielsteid	
	Nassau Otweiler		Otweiler	
	Nassau Ufingen		Ufingen	
Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state —			Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city	120
County of Erpach, subject to its own count			Erpach east.	230
Bishoprick of Spire, a sovereign state —			Spire on the Rhine an imperial city	245

Duchy

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Duchy of Zwebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts —		Deuxponts in the Palat.	700
County of Catzenelbogen, subject to Hesse Cassel		Catzenelbogen on the Lhon	
Counties of —	Waldec, sub. to its own count	Waldec	368
	Solms, sub. to its own count	Solms	
	Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel	Hanau	432
	Isenburg, sub. its own count	Isenburg	
	Sayn	Sayn	
	Wied	Wied	
	Witgenstein	Witgenstein	
	Hatzfield	Hatzfield	
	Westerburg	Westerburg	
Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot —		Fulda	621
Hirschfeld,—subject to Hesse Cassel —		Hirschfeld	

5. Lower RHINE Circle.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, subject to the Elector Palatine.	Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20	2618
	Philipsburg, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.	

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Archbishopricks and Electorates of	Cologne, subject to their respective electors.	Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50.	
		Bonn, on the Rhine.	1964
	Mentz	Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenburgh on the Maine.	1405
	Triers	Triers, on the Moselle.	1765
Bishoprick of Worms, a sovereign state —		Worms, on the Rhine, an imperial city.	154
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke.		Simmeren	
Counties of —	Rhinegravestein	Rhingravestein	
	Meurs, subject to Prussia	Meurs	
	Veldentz, subject to the Elector Palatine	Veldentz	
	Spanheim	Creutznach	
	Leyningen	Leyningen.	

6. FRANCONIA Circle.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	
Bishopricks of —	Wurtsburg, W.	Wurtsburg	1645
	Bamberg, N.	Bamberg	1700
	Aichstat, S.	Aichstat	513
Marquisates of	Cullenback, north east	Cullenback	900
	Anspach, S.	Anspach	1000

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns,	
Principality of Heneberg, N.	—	Heneberg	
Duchy of Coburg, N. subject to its duke	—	Coburg	406
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke		Hilburghausen	

Bur-

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Burgravate of Nuremberg, S. E. an independent ſtate		Nuremberg, an imperial city.	640
Territory of the great-maſter of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W — —		Mergentheim.	56
Counties of —	Reineck, W.	Reineck	
	Bareith, E. ſub. to its own mar.	Bareith	188
	Papenheim, S. ſ. to its own C.	Papenheim	
	Wertheim, W.	Wertheim	
	Caſſel, middle	Caſſel	120
	Schwartzburg, ſubject to its own count	Schwartzburgh middle	96
	Holach, S. W.	Holach	220

7. AUSTRIA Circle.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria.

Diviſions.		Chief Towns.	
Archduchy of Auſtria Proper —		Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints, Ens. weſt.	7160
Duchies of —	Stiria and Cilley, C.	Gratz, Cilley, S. E.	5000
	Catinthia	Clagenfurt, Lavemund, S. E.	3000
	Carniola	Laubach, Zerknits Trieſte, St. Veits, S. E.	4576
	Goritia	Gorits, S. E.	
County of Tyrol — — —		Inſpruck S. W. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland.	3900
Biſhopricks of	Brixen	Brixen	1300
	Trent	Trent	210

8. BAVARIA Circle.

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	
Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube. Palatinate of Bavaria	Subject to the elector Palatine as ſucceſſor to the late elector of Bavaria.	Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landſhout, Ingolſtadt, N. W Donawert [Ratiſbon, N. an imp. city.] Amberg [Sultzbach], N. of the Danube.	8500
Freiſſingen, ſubject to its biſhop		Freiſſingen —	240
Biſhoprick of Paſſau, ſubject to its own biſhop,		Paſſau, E. of the Danube.	240
Duchy of Neuberg, ſubject to the Elector Palatine — —		Neuberg, W. of the Danube.	450
Archbiſhoprick of Saltzburg, ſubject to its own archbiſhop ——		Saltzburg, S. E. Hallen.	2540

9. SWABIA Circle.

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.		
Duchy of Wurtemberg ſubject to the D. of Wurtumberg Stutgard.	Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40.	Tubingen, Hailbron.	On or near the Necker	3364
Marquiſates of Baden Baden	ſub. to their own reſpective marg.	Baden	On or near the Rhine	258
Baden Durlach		Baden Durlach		490

Biſhop-

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Biſhoprick of Augſburg, ſubject to its own biſhop	——	Augſburg, an imperial city, Hochſtet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube.	765
Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate	—	Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city.	280
Biſhoprick of Conſtance, ſubject to its own biſhop under the Houſe of Auſtria		Conſtance on the lake of Conſtance.	60
Principalities of Mindelheim	Subject to their reſpective princes	Mindelheim, S. of Augſburg.	216
Furſtenberg		Furſtenberg, S.	788
Hohenzollern		Hohenzollern, S.	150
Counties of Oeting	—	Oeting, eaſt	580
Konigſeck	—	Konigſeck, ſouth-eaſt	
Hohenrichburg		Gemund, north.	379
Baronies of Waldburg	—	Waldburg, ſouth-eaſt	
Limpurg	—	Limpurg, north.	120
Abbies of Kempten		Kempten, on the Iller.	
Buchaw		Buchaw, S. of the Danube.	
Lindaw		Lindaw, on the lake of Conſtance, imperial cities.	
Imperial cities, or ſovereign ſtates		Nordlingen, N. of the Danube. Memmingen, eaſt. Rotweil, on the Neckar, and many more.	
Subject to the houſe of Auſtria. Black foreſt, N. W. Rhinefield C.		Rhinefield and Lauffenburg.	480
Marquiſate of Burgaw		Burgaw, eaſt	650
Territory of Briſgaw, on the Rhine	—	Friburgh and Briſac.	380

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as I have already mentioned; and the word Germany is modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of it; the moſt probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger*, or *Gar*, and *Man*; which in the ancient Celtic, ſignifies a warlike man. The Germans went by various other names, ſuch as Allemanni, Teutones; which laſt is ſaid to have been their moſt ancient deſignation; and the Germans themſelves call their country Teutchland.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the ſituation, north, eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, but according to the improvement of the ſoil, which has a vaſt effect on the climate. The moſt mild and ſettled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal diſtance from the ſea and the Alps. In the north it is ſharp; towards the ſouth it is more temperate.

The ſoil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and ſterile, though in others it is ſurpriſingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily making progreſs. The ſeaſons vary as much as the ſoil. In the ſouth and weſtern parts, they are more regular than in thoſe that lie near the ſea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eaſtern blaſts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the ſeaſons of Germany and thoſe of Great Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and thoſe which ſeparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia,

mia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The vaſt paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar has preſerved more woods and chaſes in Germany than in moſt other countries. The Hercynian foreſt, which in Cæſar's time was nine days journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. The trees are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chaſe or park adorned with pleaſure-houſes, and well ſtocked with game, particularly deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound ſo much alſo with wild fowl, that in many places the peaſants have them as well as veniſon, for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donaw, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current. Some pretend that this is naturally the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is ſo broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, ſhips of war ſometimes engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable. The Danube contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe, are the Chiemſee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-ſee in the duchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides theſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is ſaid to contain more of theſe than all Europe beſides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters, and thoſe of Seltzer and Pyrmont. Thoſe of Aix la Chapelle are not leſs noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath and the Little Bath, and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of thoſe, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty; and if we are to believe all they ſay, they cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medical waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewiſe reported to perform their wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt mentioned place are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages.

After all, many are of opinion, that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſes and amuſements of the patients. It is the intereſt of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite inſtitutions for the diverſion of the public. The neatneſs, cleanlineſs, and conveniency of the places of public reſort are inconceivable; and though at firſt they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themſelves in a few years by the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of ſilver, quick-ſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, ſalt-mines, and pits are found in Auſtria, Bavaria, Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethyſts, jaſper, ſapphire, agate, alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearls, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greateſt princes and virtuoſi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen; beſides other foſſils. In ſeveral places are dug up ſtones, which repreſent different animals. Many of the German circles furniſh coal-pits; and the *terra ſigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already deſcribed: but naturaliſts are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the moſt fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its preſent, what we may call rude ſtate, proviſions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witneſs the prodigious armies which the moſt uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richeſt and moſt fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rheniſh and the Moſelle wines differ from thoſe of other countries in a peculiar lightneſs and deterſive qualities, more ſovereign in ſome diſeaſes than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their fleſh and the hams made of it are preferred by many, even to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals. Its prey is almoſt every thing that has life, which it can maſter, eſpecially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they ſurpriſe artfully, and devour greedily. On theſe the glutton feeds ſo ravenouſly, that it falls into a kind of torpid ſtate, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntſmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horſes; but their horſes, oxen, and ſheep, are not comparable to thoſe of England, probably owing to the want of ſkill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of ſinging birds, which are ſent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, it hath been difficult to ſpeak with preciſion as to the number of its inhabitants; but lately the following eſtimate hath been formed of them.

Moravia	1,100,000
Auſtrian Sileſia	200,000
High and Low Luſatia	380,000
Circle of Auſtria	4,150,000
Bavaria	1,148,438
Archbiſhoprick of Saltzburg	250,000
Wurtemburgh	565,890
Baden	200,000
Augſburgh	40,000
Bamberg and Wurtſbourgh	400,000

Nurem-

Nuremberg	—	70,000
Juliers and Berg	—	260,000
Munſter	—	130,000
Oſnaburg	—	116,664
The Pruſſian Eſtates in the Circle of Weſtphalia	—	550,000
Naſſau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman	—	74,699
Oldenbourg	—	79,071
Mayence	—	314,000
Palatinate of Rhine	—	289,614
Heſſe Caſſel and Darmſtadt	—	700,000
Fulda	—	7,000
Frankfort on the Maine	—	42,600
High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia	—	1,326,041
Swediſh Pomerania	—	100,549
Pruſſian Pomerania	—	462,970
Brandenburgh	—	1,007,232
Gotha	—	77,898
Schwartzburg, Magdeburg, and Mansfield	—	271,461
Halberſtadt and Hohenſtein	—	130,761
Hanover	—	750,000
Brunſwick	—	166,340
Holſtein	—	300,000
Mecklenburg	—	220,000
Mulhauſen	—	13,000
Hamburgh	—	100,000
	Total	17,166,868

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany; the kingdom of Bohemia will be noticed in the proper place, and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all is now computed at twenty-one millions; and when the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population muſt naturally increaſe among them.

The Germans in their perſons are tall, fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of ſhape and features, that are ſo bewitching in other countries.

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes, which, in faſhion, are nearly the ſame as in France and England; but the better ſort of men are exceſſively fond of gold and ſilver lace, eſpecially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint as the former. At ſome courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dreſs in a very different manner, and ſome of them inconceivably fantaſtic, as may be ſeen in many prints publiſhed in books of travels: but in this reſpect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dreſs from what they did thirty or forty years ago. As to the peaſantry, and labourers, they dreſs as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumſtances. The ſtoves made uſe of in Germany are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned in the northern nations, and are ſometimes made portable, ſo that the ladies carry them to church. In Weſtphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they ſleep between two feather-beds, with ſheets ſtitched to them, which by

uſe becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general, the circumſtances of the common people are more comfortable than thoſe of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both againſt the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars, the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock making, jewelry, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which I ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been given. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation: All the ſons of noblemen inherit their father's titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. The German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as thoſe of ſome other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they ſeem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to be ſomewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premiſed, it may eaſily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high-ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns. Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Men of quality think the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, below their attention; and deeming themſelves of a rank ſo ſuperior to labourers, diſdain being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public reſort, and drink the waters. As to their field-diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxurioufly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night time, ſervants ride before the

ſledge

ſledge with torches, and a gentleman ſtanding on the ſledge behind guides the horſe.

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uſe becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general, the circumſtances of the common people are more comfortable than thoſe of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both againſt the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars, the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock making, jewelry, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which I ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been given. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation: All the ſons of noblemen inherit their father's titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. The German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as thoſe of ſome other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they ſeem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to be ſomewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premiſed, it may eaſily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high-ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns. Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Men of quality think the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, below their attention; and deeming themſelves of a rank ſo ſuperior to labourers, diſdain being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public reſort, and drink the waters. As to their field-diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxurioufly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribbands, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night time, ſervants ride before the

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tongue of all Germany; but varies much in its dialect in different provinces. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater Noſter is as follows: *Unſer Vater, der du biſt im himmel, Geheiliget werd dein name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geſchehe, wie im himmel alſo auch auf erden. Unſer tâglich brodt gib uns heute. Und vergib uns unſer ſchuld, als wir vergeben unſern ſchuldigern. Unde fubre uns nicht in verſuchung. Sondern erlôſe uns von dem boſen. Den dein is das reich, und die krafft, and die herrlichkeit, en ewigheit.* Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES. No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taſte for reading, eſpecially in the proteſtant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almoſt every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number; thouſands of theſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed; for no man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt. In this country there are 36 univerſities, of which 17 are proteſtant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; beſides a vaſt number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, and Latin ſchools. There are alſo many academies and ſocieties for promoting the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, painting, ſculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *naturæ curioſi*; the academy of ſciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipſic, and Duiſburgh, at Gieſen, and at Hamburg. At Dreſden and Nuremburg are academies for painting; at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augſburg is the Imperial Franciſcan academy of fine arts; to which we may add the Latin ſociety at Jena. Of the public libraries the moſt celebrated are thoſe of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipſic.

Many of the Germans have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in various branches of learning and ſcience. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Storck, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of phyſic; Ravinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heiſter, of anatomy and ſurgery; and Newman, Zimmerman, Pott, and Margraaff, of chemiſtry. In aſtronomy, Kepler deſervedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the firſt writers on the law of nature and nations, and has alſo merit as an hiſtorian. But at the end of the laſt century, and the beginning of the preſent, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious ſects, was ſo much involved in diſputes about ſyſtematical theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language alſo, and the ſtyle of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; and though they were not underſtood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of ſuperiority to the writers, and were therefore much affected. For an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet diveſted themſelves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberleſs quotations from all ſorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true teſt of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantical, and were in conſequence diſregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the proſpects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philoſophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottſched, an author and profeſſor at Leipſic, who has been greatly honoured by the late king of Pruſſia, introduced a better taſte of writing, by publiſhing a German grammar, and by inſtituting a literary ſociety, for poliſhing and reſtoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the ſtudy

of the *belles lettres*. We may conſider this as the epocha, from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language, upon learned ſubjects, and to free themſelves, in a conſiderable degree, from that verboſeneſs and pedantry by which they had been characteriſed. About this time ſeveral young men in the univerſity of Leipſic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publiſhing ſome periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of perſons of a literary taſte. Some of theſe gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high eſtimation.

The ſtyle of preaching among the German divines alſo underwent a conſiderable change. They began to tranſlate the beſt Engliſh and French ſermons, particularly thoſe of Tillotſon, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others They improved by theſe models: and Moſheim, Jeruſalem, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have publiſhed ſermons which would do credit to any country; though they ſtill retain too much of that prolixity, for which German divines and commentators have been ſo much cenſured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are ſtill too much diſtinguiſhed by vulgar language, abſurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reaſon and good ſenſe.

Some of the Engliſh periodical writings, ſuch as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being tranſlated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the firſt and beſt was publiſhed at Hamburg, under the title of "The Pariot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late biſhop of Saliſbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Hamburg, and a conſiderable maſter of the German language. The late profeſſor Gellert, who is one of the moſt elegant of the German authors, and one of the moſt eſteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taſte. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inſpire ſentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verſe, his letters, and his moral romances, are ſo much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them almoſt by heart, His comedies are alſo very popular; though they are rather too ſentimental, and better adapted for the cloſet than for the ſtage.

Haller, the famous phyſician, Hagedorn, Uz, Cronegh, Leſſing, Gleim, Gerſtenberger, Kleiſt, Klopſtock Ramler, Zacariae, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegh, Leſſing, Wieland, and Wieſe, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his ſatirical works, immortalized his name among the Germans: though ſome of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German cuſtoms, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleaſure by perſons of other nations. Geſner, whoſe Idylls and death of Abel have been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, is known among us in a more favourable light.

In chemiſtry, and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conſpicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmerman, Abt, Kaeſtner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philoſophical writings. Buſching is an excellent geographical writer; and Maſco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, and Gebaur, have excelled in hiſtorical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Moſt of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or elſe very dry and unintereſting; which perhaps is owing to education, to falſe delicacy, or to a certain taſte of knight-errantry, which is ſtill predominant among ſome of their novel writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Leſſing, are familiar with thoſe who are ſkilled in this branch

branch of literature. In eccleſiaſtical, philoſophical, and literary hiſtory, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Moſheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in ſacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiſke, Erneſti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Hayne, have publiſhed ſome of the beſt editions of the Greek and Latin Claſſics.

It is an unfavourable circumſtance for German literature, that the French language ſhould be ſo faſhionable in the German courts inſtead of the German, and that ſo many of their princes ſhould give it ſo decided a preference. Even the late king of Pruſſia ordered the Philoſophical Tranſactions of his royal ſociety at Berlin, from the begining of its inſtitution, to be publiſhed in the French tongue: by which, ſome of the Germans think, his majeſty has caſt a very undeſerved reproach upon his native language.

With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſeles tolerably well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if firſt invented in Holland, was ſoon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the firſt inventors of great guns; as alſo of gunpowder in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians; particularly Handel, Bach, and Heſſe; of whom Handel ſtands at the head. It is acknowledged that he arrived at the ſublime of muſic, but he had not the ſmalleſt idea between muſic and ſentimental expreſſion.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND other EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occaſional eſtimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly ſo in Germany, on account of the numerous independent ſtates it contains.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the moſt illuſtrious example of ſudden improvement that this age can boaſt of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no ſtrength, and fell twice, almoſt without reſiſtance, into the hands of the Auſtrians, who, had it not been for the politeneſs of their generals, and the love of the fine arts, which always preſerves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, beſides a royal palace, has many other ſuperb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calviniſt churches, beſides a popiſh one. Its ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, and built in a very regular manner: but the houſes, though neat without, are ill-furniſhed and ill-finiſhed within; and the town is but thinly inhabited. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry are very magnificent buildings. The opera-houſe is alſo a beautiful ſtructure: and the arſenal, which is handſomely built in the form of a ſquare, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are ſundry manufactures in Berlin, and ſeveral ſchools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Buſching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garriſon. In the ſame year, and according to the ſame author, there were no fewer than 443 ſilk looms, 149 of half ſilks, 2858 for woollen ſtuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace work, 39 frames for ſilk-ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. They have here manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richeſt country in Germany, if not in Europe: it eontains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the lateſt accounts of the Germans themſelves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, eſtimating each ſix-dollar at four ſhillings and ſix pence, amounts to 1,350,000l. This ſum is ſo moderate,

moderate, when compared to the richneſs of the ſoil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, produces even diamonds, and almoſt all the precious ſtones to be found in the Eaſt Indies and elſewhere, and the variety of ſplendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the moſt moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

Dreſden, the elector of Saxony's capital, is remarkable for its palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations: it is beautifully ſituated on both ſides the Elbe; and is the ſchool of Germany for ſtatuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dreſden, by the lateſt accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipſic in Upper Saxony, 46 miles diſtant from Dreſden, is ſituated in a pleaſant and fertile plain on the Pleiſſe, and the inhabitants are ſaid to amount to about 40,000. There are alſo large and well-built ſuburbs, with handſome gardens. Between theſe ſuburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompaſſes the city. Mulberry-trees are alſo planted in the town-ditches; but the fortifications ſeem rather calculated for the uſe of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The ſtreets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with ſeven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchants' houſes, and 192 manufactures of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipſic has long been diſtinguiſhed for the liberty of conſcience allowed here to perſons of different ſentiments in religious matters. Here is an univerſity, which is ſtill very conſiderable, with ſix churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the eſtabliſhed religion, one for the Calviniſts, and a chapel in the caſtle for thoſe of the Romiſh church. The univerſity-library, conſiſts of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is alſo a library for the magiſtrates, which conſiſts of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuſcripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals with many curioſities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leine. and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. Its preſent name was given from a ferry over the Leine; the name Hanover, being the ſame with Have-over in Engliſh. It is divided by the river on which it ſtands into two parts, called the Old and New Towns; the former but indifferently built, but the new adorned with handſome ſtructures and continually improving. The ſtreets are ſpacious, regular, and well lighted with lanthorns in the night time. It contains about twelve hundred houſes, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on ſome manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The dominions of the elector of Hanover contain about ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and ſixty market-towns, beſides villages. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchaſe to the ſaid elector, contain about fifty thouſand inhabitants, and have a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general, it muſt be remarked, that the electorate has ſuffered greatly by the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. The electoral forces are ſaid to be 24,000, and the revenue to be 70,000l. a conſiderable part of which ariſes from the ſilver mines. I ſhall here juſt mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the ſeculariſed biſhoprick of Oſnaburg, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city, Oſnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhoprick amounts to about 30,000l.

Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. Since Sileſia fell under the Pruſſian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, having been very inconſiderable before. The manufactures of Sileſia, which principally centre at Breſlaw, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is ſaid to bring his Pruſſian majeſty in near a million ſterling; but this ſum ſeems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought into the houſe of Auſtria above 500,000l. yearly.

Frankfort on the Maine, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from another of the ſame name on the Oder, is ſituated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, on the river juſt mentioned, by which it is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhauſen. The former of theſe, being the largeſt, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both were computed to contain about three thouſand houſes. The fortifications, which are both regular and ſolid form a decagon, or figure conſiſting of ten baſtions, faced with hewn ſtone; the ditches are deep, and filled with freſh water; and all the outworks are placed before the gates. The government here, as in Breſlaw, is in the hands of the Lutherans; but there are alſo many Papiſts and Calviniſts. The Papiſts have the great church of St. Bartholemew, with three convents for men, and one for women; but are not allowed to make any proceſſions through the town. The Calviniſts are generally merchants, and very rich; whence it is a common ſaying, that at Franckfort, the Roman Catholics poſſeſs the churches; the Lutherans the dignities; and the Calviniſts, the riches. The laſt, however, are not allowed a church in town, but are obliged to go about three miles off for their worſhip, to a village called *Bokenheim*. The Jews are allowed a ſynagogue, but in other reſpects, are miſerably ill treated. They are confined to a particular diſtrict of the town; and ſubſiſt by ſelling things to ſtrangers. They are greatly deſpiſed, and employed in the meaneſt drudgeries, being likewiſe obliged to wear a piece of yellow cloth, to diſtinguiſh them from the other inhabitants; and notwithſtanding the extreme humiliation to which they are reduced, theſe poor people are often plundered by their German neighbours during the time of an inſurrection. Franckfort is the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is alſo a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any ſuburbs; but the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the houſes are moſtly built of timber and plaiſter, and covered with ſlate; though there are ſome handſome private ſtructures, of a kind of red marble, that deſerve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compeſtel and Fronhof, the Trierſhof, the Cullenhof, the German-houſe, an auguſt edifice, ſituated near the the bridge over the Maine, the Heſſe-Darmſtadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houſes of the counts of Solms, Schauenhurg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal ſquares.

Frankfort on the Oder, is a city on that river, in the circle of Upper Saxony. It is divided into two parts by the river, which are joined together by a wooden bridge. The houſes are tolerably well built, the ſtreets ſpacious, and they have a pretty good trade in woollen and linen goods, with two fairs a year, which invite a vaſt number of merchants, particularly Jews, from Poland. They have a communication with the Baltic ſea by the river Oder, as well as with the Spree and Havel by canals. Here is an univerſity erected in 1506, by Joachim I. marquis of Brandenburg. There is likewiſe a handſome market-place ſurrounded with very good houſes.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and being the reſidence of the emperor, is conſidered as the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a ſtrong city, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria have omitted nothing that could contribute

to its grandeur and riches. Vienna, which takes its name from the little river *Wien*, which runs on the eaſt of the city, and falls into the Danube a little below it, contains an excellent univerſity, a bank, which is in the management of her own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce immediately ſubject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a ſixth part of the town; but the ſuburbs are larger than the city. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its ſquares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curioſities. An academy was erected by the emperor Joſeph in 1706, for painting, ſculpture and architecture.

In no place of the world do people live more luxurioufly than at Vienna; and in this they are plentifully ſupplied by the vaſt produce of the neighbouring country. So great is their extravagance, that people of fortune will have 18 or 20 different ſorts of wine; and a note of every ſort which may be called for is laid upon the plates. Notwithſtanding this abundance of wine, it is not reckoned very good, and their beer is ſtill more unpalatable.

Among the rich convents, of this city is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of ſome notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the ſuburbs, are computed at about three hundred thouſand; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns, has rendered this city the rendezvous of foreigners.

After all that has been ſaid of this magnificent city, the moſt candid and ſenſible of thoſe who have viſited it, are far from being laviſh in its praiſe. The ſtreets, except thoſe in the ſuburbs, are narrow and dirty. The houſes of this city are generally of ſtone, five or ſix ſtories high, and flat roofed. They have three or four cellars under one another, with an open ſpace in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air, and from the lowermoſt of all, there is a tube to the top, to let in air from the ſtreet. The air, however, is far from being either agreeable or wholeſome; ſo that its bad qualities have even become a proverb, and it is ſaid that Vienna is either windy or poiſonous. Indeed, for the greateſt part of the year, the winds blow ſo hard, that it is troubleſome to walk the ſtreets. A remarkable prerogative of the ſovereign here is, that the ſecond floor of every houſe belongs to him, and is aſſigned to whomſoever he thinks proper; and hence there is no part of Germany, where lodging is ſo dear as at Vienna. An odd cuſtom prevails here of putting iron bars to all their windows up to the very tops of their houſes, which makes them all look like ſo many priſons. The houſes and furniture of the citizens are greatly diſproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, ſquares, and other public buildings; but above all, the exceſſive impoſts laid by the houſe of Auſtria upon every commodity in its dominions, muſt always keep the manufacturing part of their ſubjects poor. His late imperial majeſty became ſenſible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predeceſſors and their counſellors; he examined things with his own eyes, and deſcended from that haughtineſs of demeanour which rendered the imperial court ſo long diſagreeable, and indeed ridiculous, to the reſt of Europe. In general, the condition of the Auſtrian ſubjects has been greatly meliorated ſince his acceſſion to the imperial throne; great encouragement has been given to the proteſtants, and many of the popiſh religious houſes, convents, &c. were ſuppreſſed by him.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. In deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, I anticipated great part of this article, which is of itſelf very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curioſities,

artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelburgh holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuſcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities in art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and, above all, townhouſes, in Germany, are very curious; they ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and ſometimes have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houſes in great cities and villages have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick-wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near Blackenburg, in Hartz-foreſt, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave ſtands a monument which commemorates the loſs of 130 children, who were there ſwallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very ſtrongly atteſted, it has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vaſt advantages in point of commerce, from its ſituation in the heart of Europe, and being interſected with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (beſides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cummin, tobacco, ſaffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to thoſe of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen, and woollen yarn, ribbands, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery wares, in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-ſkins, wool, timber both for ſhip-building and houſes, cannon, and bullets, bombs, and bomb-ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs-wire, porcelain the fineſt upon earth, earthen-ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hogs briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printer's ink, and many other articles.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged French Proteſtants to ſettle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite ſervice to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, fine and coarſe; linen and thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Aſiatic company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by his late Pruſſian majeſty, was, excluſive of the Hanſeatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ſhips have been ſent out ſince the year 1760. The heavy taxes that his majeſty laid on the company, has been the cauſe of its total

annihilation. In the great cities of Germany very large and extenſive partnerſhips in trade ſubſiſt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almoſt every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whoſe power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive: but even that gives him vaſt influence. The ſupreme power in Germany is the diet, which is compoſed of the emperor, or, in his abſence, of his commiſſary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The firſt of theſe is the electoral college; the ſecond is the college of princes; and the third, the college of Imperial towns. The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but after this, became elective; and, in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239 the number of electors was reduced to ſeven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for ſome centuries belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather by the mother's ſide, to the preſent emperor, the elector of Bavaria was choſen to that dignity, and died, as is ſuppoſed, heart-broken, after a ſhort uncomfortable reign.

The election of the emperor is proceeded to after the following manner. The elector of Mentz, before the lapſe of a month after the death of the emperor, ſummons, as great chancellor of the empire, the reſt of the electors, to attend on ſome fixed day within the ſpace of three months from the date of the ſummons. The electors generally ſend their ambaſſadors to the place of election, which is held at Frankfort on the Maine; but ſaving the right of the city of Frankfort, it may be held elſewhere.

When the diet of electors is aſſembled, they proceed to compoſe the capitulation, to which the emperor, when elected, is to ſwear. The capitulation, being adjuſted, the elector of Mentz appoints a day for the election.

When this day arrives, the gates of the city are ſhut, and the keys delivered to the elector of Mentz. The electors or their ambaſſadors, proteſtants excepted, repair in great pomp to maſs, and after its celebration they take a ſolemn oath to chooſe, unbiaſſed, and uninfluenced, the perſon that appears moſt proper for the imperial dignity. After this, they repair to the ſacriſty, where the elector of Mentz, firſt, aſks if there be any impediment known againſt their proceeding at preſent to an election? And next, he obtains a promiſe that the perſon elected by the majority ſhall be received as emperor. The declarations of the electoral ambaſſadors, in reſpect to theſe two points, are recorded by two notaries of the empire. Then all witneſſes withdraw; and the elector of Mentz collecting the ſuffrages, which are *viva voce*, and giving his own laſt, the witneſſes are recalled, and he declares the perſon whom the electors have choſen. But the election is not complete, nor is the new emperor proclaimed, until the capitulation be ſworn to, either by himſelf, or by his ambaſſadors, if he be abſent.

From this time he is ſtyled king of the Romans, until the coronation takes place; which ceremony confers the title of emperor. According to the golden bull (ſo called from the great golden ſeal of the emperor affixed to it; it was publiſhed at the diet of Nuremberg, in the year 1356, and in the reign of Charles IV. It ſettles every thing relating to the election and coronation of the emperor, and the rights of the electors; the Latin original is preſerved at Frankfort on the Maine) it ſhould be celebrated at Aix-la-Chapelle out of reſpect to Charlemagne, who

who reſided there. The coronation is performed by the archbiſhop of Mentz, or elector of Cologne.

For the benefit of the empire, during the reign of an emperor, his preſumptive ſucceſſor may be elected king of the Romans. But this election confers at firſt a mere title; for by an expreſs article in his capitulation, the king of the Romans ſwears not to interfere with the government during the life of the emperor; but, on his deceaſe, the coronation confirms him emperor without a ſecond election.

Should there not be a king of the Romans, and the throne become vacant, the government is adminiſtered by vicars of the empire, who are the electors of Saxony and of Bavaria, who have juriſdiction, the former over the northern, and the lat-latter over the ſouthern circles. By the golden bull it is eſtabliſhed, that all acts of the vicars are valid; but they are all fully confirmed by the emperor; which confirmation, by an article of his capitulation, he is bound to give.

The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he ſigns at his election. He can confer titles and enfranchiſments upon cities and towns; but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the conſent of the diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German conſtitution; for George II. of England was obliged to furniſh his quota againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and alſo againſt the king of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all Chriſtian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the Imperial court, and they have the ſole election of the emperor. They are in order,

Firſt, The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbiſhop of Treves, who is high chancellor of France and Arelat, a dignity, which, ſince the ſeparation of France from the empire, is merely nominal.

Third, the archbiſhop of Cologne, who is the ſame in Italy, a mere title alſo.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand ſewer, or officer who ſerves out the feaſts.

The elector of Saxony who is great marſhal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburgh (now king of Pruſſia), who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great ſteward; and,

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain), who claims the poſt of arch-treaſurer.

It is neceſſary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of thoſe members.

The eccleſiaſtical princes are as abſolute as the temporal ones in their ſeveral dominions. The chief of theſe, beſides the three eccleſiaſtical electors already mentioned, are the archbiſhop of Saltzburgh, the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, Spire, Worms, Wirtſburg, Straſburg, Oſnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Beſides theſe, are many other eccleſiaſtical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeſſes, whoſe juriſdictions are likewiſe abſolute and ſome of them very conſiderable, and all of them are choſen by their ſeveral chapters. The chief of the ſecular princes are the Landgrave of Heſſe, the dukes of Brunſwic, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquiſſes of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Naſſau, Anhalt, Furſtenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are ſovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewiſe ſovereign ſtates; thoſe which are Imperial, or compoſe a part of the diet, bear the Imperial eagle

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in their arms; thoſe which are Hanſe-towns, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, have ſtill great privileges and immunities, but they ſubſiſt no longer as a political body.

Having ſpoken of the rights and privileges of the electors, princes, &c. of the empire, it may be neceſſary here to give ſome account of the ban, or proſcription to which the electors and ſtates of the empire are ſubject. The ban is of two ſorts; —the one is privatory; the other proviſionary. The firſt conſiſts in depriving a prince or ſtate of the empire of all their rights, privileges, dignities, &c. &c. The ſecond conſiſts in taking away the actual government of the ſtates, and committing them to the care of ſome other, until it be otherwiſe ordered.

Every ſtate which acts directly or indirectly againſt the fundamental laws of the empire, or the religious peace, is ſubject to the puniſhment of the ban. But this ſentence of proſcription is difficult to obtain, becauſe it is difficult to unite all the orders of the empire in the ſame point of view. The execution of it belongs to the captain of the circle where the prince is ſituated, and every feudal ſtate of the empire is ſubject to it.

The Imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic council, are the two ſupreme courts for determining the great cauſes of the empire, ariſing between its reſpective members. The Imperial council conſiſts of fifty judges or aſſeſſors. The preſident and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooſes one, and the other princes and ſtates the reſt. This court is at preſent held at Wetzlar, but formerly it reſided at Spire; and cauſes may be brought before it by appeal. The Aulic council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria. As that family's power increaſed, the juriſdiction of the Aulic council was extended; and at laſt, to the great diſguſt of the princes of the empire, it uſurped upon the powers of the Imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a certain number of Aulic-counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers, but the emperor in fact is maſter of the court. Theſe courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Paſſau, and the civil law.

Beſides theſe courts of juſtice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. Theſe directors are commonly as follow. For Weſtphalia, the biſhop of Munſter, or duke of Newburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbiſhop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine, or biſhop of Worms. For Franconia, the biſhop of Bamburg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wirtemberg, or biſhop of Conſtance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbiſhop of Saltzburg; and for Auſtria, the archduke of Auſtria, his Imperial majeſty.

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced, the emperor by his prerogative commits the execution of it to a particular prince, whoſe troops live at free quarter upon the eſtate of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences: upon the whole, the conſtitution of the Germanic body is of itſelf a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. But however plauſibly invented the ſeveral checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the houſe of Auſtria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been ſaved by France. Lately, indeed, the houſe of Auſtria has met with a powerful oppoſition from the houſe of Brandenburg, in conſequence of the activity and abilities of the late king of Pruſſia. Before I cloſe this head, it may be neceſſary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently

quently appeared in the German hiſtory, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, though the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guaranteed by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland attempted to overthrow it, as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewiſe been again and again oppoſed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed and fleeced at pleaſure; nor are they entirely without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy: for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, bands of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged to ſupport all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vaſſals and dependants. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter alſo, in ſome parts, in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and pay the taxes; whereas in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who, as ſuch, hath an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds ſterling, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues are immenſe, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000l. ſterling, in Germany and Italy; a ſum that goes far in thoſe countries. The father of the late king of Pruſſia, whoſe revenues were not near ſo extenſive as thoſe of his ſon, though he maintained a large army, was ſo good an œconomiſt that he left 7,000,000l. ſterling in his coffers, and ſome have thought that Sileſia alone brings above half a million ſterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and conſequently the low price of proviſions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that ſome princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot ſpeak with any tolerable preciſion on a ſubject of ſuch variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends ſo many independent ſtates.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two laſt wars, very little regard was paid in carrying them on, to the ancient German conſtitutions, the whole management being engroſſed by the head of the houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation-book or regiſter, which, among other letters, contains the aſſeſſments of men and money, which every prince and ſtate, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments paid to the emperors when they viſited Rome. Thoſe aſſeſſments, however, are ſubject to great mutability. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that upon a moderate computation the ſecular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500 in all 453,500; of thoſe the emperor, as the head of the houſe of Auſtria, is ſuppoſed to furniſh 90,000.

The

The elector of Mentz may maintain	6000
The elector of Triers	6000
The elector of Cologne	6000
The biſhop of Munſter	8000
The biſhop of Liege	8000
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8000
The biſhop of Wurtzburg	2000
The biſhop of Bamburg	5000
The biſhop of Paderborn	3000
The biſhop of Oſnaburg	2500
The abbot of Fulda	6000
The other biſhopricks of the empire	6000
The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire	8000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes	74500
The emperor, for Hungary	30000
for Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30000
for Auſtria, and other dominions	30000
The king of Pruſſia	40000
The elector of Saxony	25000
The elector Palatine	15000
The duke of Wirtemburg	15000
The landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel	15000
The prince of Baden	10000
The elector of Hanover	30000
The duke of Holſtein	12000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15000
The prince of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawnburg	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30000
The dukes of Saxony	10000
The prince of Naſſau	10000
The other princes and Imperial towns	50000
The ſecular princes	379000
The eccleſiaſtical princes	74500
	453500

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears that the emperor and empire form the moſt powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours. But the different intereſts purſued by the ſeveral princes of Germany, render the power of the emperor of little conſequence, except with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The army of the late emperor was computed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thouſand.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the

head of that houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is veſted as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. On the breaſt of the eagle is an eſcutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Arragon, Anjou, Gelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as uſeleſs as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order the Golden Fleece, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager Eleonora, 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empreſs-queen inſtituted the order of St. Tereſa.

The order of the "*Golden Fleece*" was inſtituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is ſuppoſed that he choſe the badge, it being the chief of the ſtaple manufactures of his country. It at firſt conſiſted of thirty knights, including the ſovereign, who were of the firſt families in the Low Countries, and it ſtill continues to be claſſed with the moſt illuſtrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At preſent there are two branches of it; of the one, the emperor is ſovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all muſt prove their noble deſcent from the twelfth century. They uſually wear a Golden Fleece, proper, pendent to a broad plain red ribband round their necks; but on days of ceremony, they wear the collar of the order, which is compoſed of double ſteels, interwoven with flint ſtones emitting ſparks of fire, the whole enamelled with their proper colours, at the end of which hangs on the breaſt a Golden Fleece. The fuſils are joined two and two, as if they were double B B's, the cypher of Burgundy, and the flint ſtones the ancient arms of the ſovereigns of that duchy, with their motto, "*Ante ferit quam flamma micet.*" The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*"

The Teutonic order owed its origin to ſome religious Germans in Jeruſalem during the cruſades, who aſſumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hoſpital of our Lady of the Germans at Jeruſalem." They wear a white mantle, and had for their badge a croſs potent, ſable. The original badge aſſigned by the emperor Henry VI. was a croſs, potent, black; John king of Jeruſalem added thereto the croſs double potent, gold; the emperor Frederic II. gave them the imperial eagle, and St. Lewis augmented the badge with ſemé of fleurs-de-lis on a chief, blue. Conrade duke of Swabia invited them into Pruſſia about the year 1230: ſoon after they conquered Pruſſia for themſelves, and became one of the moſt powerful orders in Europe. By the order dividing againſt itſelf, they afterwards loſt their power and poſſeſſions; and Albert marquis of Brandenburg, grand-maſter of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-maſterſhip, ſubdued Pruſſia, and expelled all the papiſts who followed not his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the proteſtant branch, who have a houſe at Utrecht, have been noticed in our account of orders in the Netherlands—that for papiſts, hath a houſe at Mergenheim in Germany, and the members muſt take the oath of celibacy. The enſign worn by this branch is as above deſcribed, worn round the neck pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the inſtitution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is ſovereign thereof, and it is generally beſtowed on general officers. The badge is a golden ſquare medal enamelled white, on which is an eagle diſplayed, red. It is worn pendent to a broad red watered ribband, edged with yellow, and worn ſcarfwiſe. In the year 1690, John George, elector of Saxony, and

Frederick

Frederick III. elector of Brandenburg, on terminating their diſputes, eſtabliſhed the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and ſecurity hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold, on one ſide are the names of the two princes with this device, "*Amitié ſincere*; on the other ſide are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two ſwords, with two palm branches croſſed, with this motto, "*Unis pour jamais.*"

John George, duke of Saxe Weiſſenfels, inſtituted the "*Order of the Noble Paſſion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the ſovereign. The badge is a gold medal enamelled white, on which is a ſtar of eight points, gold, charged with a croſs, red, ſurmounted with an oval, blue, on which are the letters J. G. in a cypher, the whole encircled with theſe words, "*J' aime l'honneur qui vient par la vertu.*" Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed ſoldiers in the ſervice of the ſovereign. In the year 1709, Louiſe Elizabeth, widow of Philip duke of Saxe Merſburg, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," firſt inſtituted in 1652, by her father the duke of Wirtemburg. A princeſs of that houſe alone can be ſovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) can be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amuſements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, ſurmounted with a croſs pattée, black: above the croſs pattée, another croſs compoſed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribband edged with white, and on the ribband theſe words, "*Memento mori*," worn at the breaſt.

The great order of Wirtemburgh, is that "*of the Chace*" inſtituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. The badge of the order is a golden croſs of eight points enamelled, red, in the ſpaces between the branches of the croſs is an eagle diſplayed, red, and between the points of each traverſe a bugle horn, and in the centre the letter W. and over it a ducal coronet enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a broad ſcarlet watered ribband, paſſing ſcarfwiſe from the left ſhoulder to the right ſide. On the left ſide of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered, of the ſame figure as the badge, in the middle a green circle with the motto "*Amicitiæ, virtutiſque fœdus.*" The feſtival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of ſportſmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," firſt inſtituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. The number of counts and barons of the order, who enjoyed the memorial lands annexed to it, is limited to twelve, but the number of princes and private gentlemen is not fixed. All are to prove the nobility of their deſcent for four generations, and on the day of reception are to pay 100 ducats to the poor. The elector Palatine is grand-maſter of the order. The badge is a croſs of eight points, from the angles iſſue rays, and in the middle of a circle is enamelled the figure of St. Hubert kneeling before a crucifix, placed between the horns of a ſtag ſtanding in a wood, having in the centre this device in the Runic language, "*Conſtans in fidelitate*," on a red ground. All the knights have either military employments or penſions.

The archbiſhop of Saltſburgh in 1701, inſtituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the ſee he held, and as the apoſtle of his country. It is compoſed of twelve knights, diſtinguiſhed by a chain of gold round the neck to which is pendent the badge, which is a croſs of eight points enamelled blue, and on the centre the image of St. Rupert. As the archbiſhop is the richeſt and moſt powerful prince of Bavaria next to the elector, his order is in good eſteem. In the year 1729, Albert elector of Bavaria inſtituted the order of "*St. George the Defender of the Immaculate Conception.*" The knights of which are obliged to prove their

nobility by father and mother for five generations: the badge they wear is a ſtar of eight points, and on the centre is enamelled the image of St. George on horſeback ſlaying a dragon. The croſs is enamelled blue edged with white. On days of ceremony they wear the badge pendent to a collar compoſed of oblong plates with crowns at each end, and columns ſurmounted with globes, each column ſupported by two lions holding in their exterior paws two ſcymitars, the whole joined together with lozenge chains, enamelled blue with white—on the oblong plates, is this motto, "*In fide, juſtitia, et fortitudine.*"

The "*Order of the Golden Lion,*" was inſtituted by the preſent landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel; is equally a military and civil order, but moſtly conferred on general officers. The badge is an octagonal medal enamelled red, in the centre a lion rampant, gold, ducally crowned; it is pendent to a broad watered crimſon ribband, worn ſcarfwiſe. The preſent landgrave hath alſo inſtituted the military "*Order of Merit,*" the badge of which is a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, and in the centre is this motto, "*Pro virtute et fidelitate;*" it is worn at the coat buttonhole, pendent to a blue ribband edged with ſilver.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well deſcribed by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the Roman empire, not in its original or its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and ſtill continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military union for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberty of them all. At length, the Roman power, directed by policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, which was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was invaded by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a conſiderable part of it long remained in ſubjection to earls and marquiſſes of that nation. In this ſituation Germany continued, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the beginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of thoſe eccentric and ſuperior geniuſſes who ſometimes ſtart up in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, aſſuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of theſe, the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of thoſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the conteſts between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to diſquiet the empire for ſeveral ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks, and the German princes often contended for the ſucceſſion to the imperial dignity. But what more deſerves the attention of a judicious reader than all thoſe noiſy but unintereſting diſputes, is the progreſs of government in Germany, which was in ſome meaſure oppoſite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raiſed by Charlemagne, fell aſunder, all the different independent princes aſſumed the right of election; and thoſe now diſtinguiſhed by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing

ing a ſucceſſor to the imperial throne: they were only the officers of the king's houſehold, his ſecretary, his ſteward, chaplain, marſhal, or maſter of his horſe, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's perſon, and had, like all the other princes, independent territories belonging to them, they increaſed their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the houſe of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the ſole right of electing the emperor*. Thus while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independant barons, was diminiſhed by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raiſed upon the ruins of the emperor's ſupremacy, and of the people's rights. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy that he and his ſucceſſors ſhould have the power of nominating the pope and of granting inveſtitures to biſhops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, ſurrendered up the right of inveſtiture and other powers, to the diſgrace of the imperial dignity: but pope Benedict XII. refuſing abſolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared in the diet of the empire, that the majority of ſuffrages of the electoral college ſhould confer the empire without the conſent of the pope; that he had no ſuperiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his ſucceſſors Maximilian, married the heireſs of Charles duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the houſe of Auſtria. Charles V. grandſon of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in ſeveral parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually diſturbed by his wars with the German princes and the French king, Francis I. Though ſucceſsful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune, towards the concluſion of it, began to forſake him; which, with other reaſons, occaſioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who in 1558, ſucceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the addreſs to get his ſon Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his laſt will he ordered, that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother Charles, ſhould fail, his Auſtrian eſtates ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter Anne, wife of the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue. I mention this deſtination, as it gave riſe to the late oppoſition made by the houſe of Bavaria to the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of the empreſs-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was diſturbed with internal commotions, and an invaſion from the Turks; but he died in peace in 1576. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Auſtria in his life-time. He was ſucceeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calviniſts, were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias, at laſt, reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial com-

* Wiquefort ſaith, that nothing was ſettled as to the number of electors, or the electorial dignity, till Charles IV. who was choſen emperor in 1347, and made that famous conſtitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*.

miſſaries,

miſſaries, out of a window at Prague. This gave riſe to a ruinous war, which laſted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his Britannic majeſty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he loſt it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague; and he was alſo deprived of his own electorate, the beſt part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The proteſtant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmneſs and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach; Chriſtian, duke of Brunſwick, and count Mansfield; the laſt was one of the beſt generals of the age. Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark declared for them; and Richelieu, the French miniſter, was not fond of ſeeing the houſe of Auſtria aggrandiſed. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Chriſtian having put himſelf at the head of the Evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialiſt of great reputation in war. Ferdinand ſo groſsly abuſed the advantages obtained over the proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. I have already deſcribed his amazing victories and progreſs, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the proteſtant cauſe did not die with him. He had brought up a ſet of heroes, ſuch as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torſtenſon, Banier, and others, who ſhook the Auſtrian power, till under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munſter, in the year 1648; which forms the baſis of the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III. who died in 1657, and was ſucceeded by the emperor Leopold, a ſevere, unamiable, and unfortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other; and was a loſer in his war with both. France took from him Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt checks they received in Hungary, and by the peace of Carlowitz in 1699, Tranſylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William the IIId. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, the conſequences of which have been already deſcribed. The Hungarians, ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very ſplendid victories, had not all the ſucceſs he expected or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould take the labouring oar in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his ſlowneſs and ſelfiſhneſs; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male iſſue, he was ſucceeded in the empire by his brother Charles VI.

whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at firſt made a ſhew as if he would continue the war; but found himſelf unable, now that he was forſaken by the Engliſh. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden, in 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat, from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the ſame general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialiſts: and next year the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leiſure in making arrangements for increaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the houſe of Hanover; an event which gave him a very deciſive weight in Europe, by the connections of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I.; and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it it ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Hanover, and its aggrandiſement, was the main object of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, he having no male iſſue. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points reſtored a good underſtanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, allured by the proſpect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquiſhed the great claims he had upon the Auſtrian ſucceſſion.

The emperor, after this, had very bad ſucceſs in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himſelf for the great ſacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the houſe of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to ſupply his place. The ſyſtem of France under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and ſhe obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reaſon to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers eaſy, had, before his death, given his eldeſt daughter, the late empreſs-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no acceſſion of power to the Auſtrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no ſooner in the grave, than all he had ſo long laboured for muſt have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmneſs of George II. The pragmatic ſanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Pruſſia, with a powerful army entered, and conquered Sileſia, which he ſaid had been wrongfully diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria ſet up claims directly imcompatible with the pragmatic ſanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all thoſe powers had ſolemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a conſiderable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Pruſſia, was forced to cede to that prince the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and ſufferings, and the noble fortitude with which ſhe bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians into whoſe arms ſhe threw herſelf and her little ſon; and though they had been always remarkable for their diſaffection to the houſe of Auſtria, they declared unanimouſly in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an Engliſh and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was

at

at this time miſerable on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as had been his anceſtor in queen Anne's reign, for ſiding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almoſt her own terms; but ſhe haughtily and impoliticly rejected all accommodation, though adviſed to it by his Britannic majeſty, her beſt, and indeed only friend. This obſtinacy gave a colour for the king of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of ſupporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired to Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, his imperial majeſty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorrain, then grand duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt his Pruſſian majeſty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſuch, that his Britannic majeſty thought proper to guarantee to him the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Pruſſian majeſty pretended that he had diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themſelves. Upon this his Pruſſian majeſty, all of a ſudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain, now become great-duke of Tuſcany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the diſadvantage, but to the diſcredit of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till it was finiſhed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Sileſia was once more guaranteed to the king of Pruſſia. It was not long before that monarch's jealouſies were renewed and verified; and the empreſs of Ruſſia's views falling in with thoſe of the empreſs-queen and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally ſupported by France in their new ſchemes, a freſh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Pruſſia declared againſt the admiſſion of the Ruſſians into Germany, and his Britannic majeſty againſt that of the French. Upon theſe principles all former differences between thoſe monarchs were forgotten, and the Britiſh parliament agreed to pay an annual ſubſidy of 670,000l. to his Pruſſian majeſty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now re-kindled with more fury than ever.

His Pruſſian majeſty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the Imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowoſitz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almoſt impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Pruſſian majeſty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Ruſſians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of his Pruſſian majeſty on this occaſion is the moſt amazing that is to be met with in hiſtory. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Auſtrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave maſhal Schwerin was on the ſide of the Pruſſians. He then beſieged Prague, and plied it with a moſt tremendous artillery; but juſt as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Auſtrian general Daun, obliged to raiſe

the ſiege, and to fall back upon Eiſenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The Imperialiſts, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops: but they were beaten at the battle of Liſſa, and the Pruſſians took Breſlau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Ruſſians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aſpect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterpriſing genius of count Daun, laid his Pruſſian majeſty under infinite difficulties, notwithſtanding all his amazing victories. At firſt he defeated the Ruſſians at Zorndorff; but an attack made upon his army, in the night-time, by count Daun, at Hockkirchen, had almoſt proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable preſence of mind. He was obliged, however, to ſacrifice Saxony, for the ſafety of Sileſia; and it has been obſerved, that few periods of hiſtory afford ſuch room for reflection as this campaign did; ſix ſieges were raiſed almoſt at the ſame time; that of Colberg, by the Ruſſians; that of Leipſic, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dreſden, by Daun; and thoſe of Neiſs, Coſel, and Torgau, by the Auſtrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital ſcenes which paſſed at the ſame time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the Engliſh, or their allies. The operations on both ſides were of little importance to hiſtory, becauſe nothing was done that was deciſive, though extremely burdenſome and bloody to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empreſs-queen to his Britannic majeſty, and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Ruſſians had taken poſſeſſion of all the kingdom of Pruſſia, and laid ſiege to Colberg, the only port of his Pruſſian majeſty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Ruſſians; but he ſoon found them by far the moſt formidable enemies he had, advancing under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Sileſia. In this diſtreſs he acted with a courage and reſolution that bordered upon deſpair; but was, at laſt, totally defeated by the Ruſſians, with the loſs of 20,000 of his beſt men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats ſeemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were ſhut up. He had loſt, ſince the firſt of October 1756, the great marſhal Keith, and forty brave generals, beſides thoſe who were wounded and made priſoners. At Landſhut the imperial general Laudohn defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Auſtrians a ready gate into Sileſia. None but his Pruſſian majeſty would have thought of continuing the war under ſuch repeated loſſes; but every defeat he received ſeemed to give him freſh ſpirits. It is not perhaps very eaſy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealouſy which the Imperial generals entertained of their Ruſſian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contribution; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the Imperialiſts in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the beſt fought action the king of Pruſſia had ever been engaged in, but it coſt him 10,000 of his beſt troops, and was attended with no great conſequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Ruſſia, the taking of Colberg by the Ruſſians, and of Schweidnitz by the Auſtrians, ſeemed almoſt to have completed his ruin, when his moſt formidable enemy, the empreſs of Ruſſia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of thoſe illuſtrious perſonages were followed by great conſequences. The Britiſh miniſtry of George III. were ſolicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Ruſſia recalled his armies. His Pruſſian majeſty was, notwithſtanding, ſo very much reduced by his loſſes, that the empreſs-qneen, probably, would have completed his deſtruction, had it not been for the backwardneſs of the other German princes to annihilate the houſe of Brandenburgh. At firſt the empreſs-queen rejected all terms propoſed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to

her armies. The viſible unwillingneſs of her generals to execute her orders, and the ſucceſſes obtained by his Pruſſian majeſty, at laſt prevailed upon her to agree to an armiſtice, which was ſoon followed by the treaty of Hubertſburg, February 15, 1763, which again ſecured to his Pruſſian majeſty the poſſeſſion of Sileſia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her huſband, in 1765, her ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded him in the empire. His imperial majeſty, ſoon after his acceſſion, diſcovered great talents for government, and for partitioning other countries. He joined in the diſmemberment of Poland, with Ruſſia and Pruſſia. He paid a viſit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome and the principal courts of Italy; and had a perſonal interview with his Pruſſian majeſty, though this did not prevent hoſtilities from being commenced between Auſtria and Pruſſia, on account of the ſucceſſion to the electorate of Bavaria. The Auſtrian claims on this occaſion were very unjuſt, but in the ſupport of them, while the conteſt continued, the emperor diſplayed great military ſkill. Though vaſt armies were brought into the field on both ſides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. After that event, the emperor was much better employed than in the operations of war, excepting his demand, on the Dutch for the free navigation of the Scheld, &c. contrary to the ſtipulation of former treaties; in the obſervance of which, to ſupport his anceſtors, the Dutch as well as Engliſh ſpent many millions of money, and ſacrificed thouſands of ſouls. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, granted a moſt liberal religious toleration, ſuppreſſed moſt of the religious orders of both ſexes, as utterly uſeleſs and even pernicious to ſociety; and in 1783, by an edict, he aboliſhed the remains of ſervitude and villanage, and fixed alſo the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a penſion in lieu. He alſo aboliſhed the uſe of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peaſants and common people laboured. He was a prince of a philoſophic turn of mind, and mixed with his ſubjects with an eaſe and affability that are very uncommon in perſons of his rank. He loved the converſation of ingenious men, and appeared ſolicitous to cultivate that extenſive knowledge, which enobles thoſe who adorn the elevated ſtation to which he had been raiſed.

Notwithſtanding this, he was far from fortunate. He pronounced his own ſatire in the epitaph which he wrote for himſelf— "Here lies Joſeph II. unhappy in all his undertakings." Unhappy, becauſe unſucceſsful, and unſucceſsful becauſe his imagination outran his judgement. To render religion independent, ſcience free, laws and legiſlation more perfect and vigorous, were great and laudable objects—but he failed in all. And the moment before his death, he endured every aggravation of misfortune: Brabant torn from him, Hungary bearing off in noiſy triumph its crown from his palace, while he lay ſuffering the pangs of death; his family connection with Ruſſia cut aſunder, and the views of ambition cloſed by the death of the princeſs Elizabeth; his own death, too, pronounced inevitable to him before he could view the ſucceſs of his arms at Belgrade, and the ſingle ſucceſs of his life. Again, that ſucceſs thrown into ſuſpence, and rendered doubtful before his expiring eyes, by the terrible news of the danger and expected defeat of Coburg. Thus, did he drink the cup of bitterneſs to the very dregs.

Joſeph Benedict Auguſtus, late emperor of Germany, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded his father as emperor in 1765, married the ſame year the princeſs Joſephina Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his firſt wife (the princeſs of Parma) a daughter, Thereſa Elizabeth, born in 1762, but ſhe is dead, and the emperor had no iſſue by his laſt conſort. He died at Vienna, on Feb. 20, 1790, in the forty-ninth year of his age, in the twenty-ſixth of his reign, as emperor of the Romans; and the tenth as king of Hungary and Bohemia. He is ſucceeded by his brother Leopold Joſeph, grand duke of Tuſcany.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. } THIS country is bounded to the North by part of Samogitia; to the ſouth, by Poland Proper and Maſovia; to the eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the Weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS. } The name of Pruſſia is probably derived from the Boruſſi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer and game, wild boars and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſhes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coaſt towards the Baltic. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, beſides quantities of pot-aſhes. The rivers here ſometimes do damage by inundations; and the principal are, the Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As Pruſſia, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, has become a moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe, I ſhall, for the information of my readers, deviate from my uſual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole of his Pruſſian majeſty's territories, which lie ſcattered in other diviſions of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which they will find in the following table.

Proteſtants.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Poland.	Ducal Pruſſia	9,950	260	112	KONINGSBERG	54-43 N. Lat.
	Royal Pruſſia	6,400	118	104	Elbing	21-35 E. Lon.
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg	10,910	215	110	Berlin	
	Pomerania	4,820	150	63	Camin	
	Swediſh Pomerania	2,991	90	48	Stetin	
Lo. Saxony.	Magdeburg	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg	
	Halberſtadt	450	42	17	Halberſtadt	
Bohemia.	Glatz	550	38	23	Glatz	
	Sileſia	10,000	196	92		
Weſtphalia.	Minden.	595	42	26	Minden.	
	Ravenſburg	525	38	34	Ravenſburg	
	Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen	
	Cleves	630	43	21	Cleves	
	Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs	
	Mark	980	52	43	Ham	
	Eaſt Frieſland	690	46	32	Emden	
	Lippe	25	8	4	Lipſtadt	
	Gulich	528	44	24	Gulich	
	Tecklenburg	36	12	6	Tecklenburg	
Netherlands.	Gelder	360	34	23	Gelders	
Switzerland.	Neufchatel.	320	32	20	Neufchatel	
	Total—	51,281				

Beſides a great part of Sileſia, which the late king of Pruſſia, under various pretences, hath wreſted from Auſtria; availing himſelf alſo of the internal troubles in Poland, he, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, ſeized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Viſtula, the Neiſter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, cloſe to the walls of Dantzie. Theſe acquiſitions may be traced in the map.

I ſhall here confine myſelf to Pruſſia as a kingdom, becauſe his Pruſſian majeſty's other dominions fall under the deſcription of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone, were, by Dr. Buſching, computed to amount to 635,998 perſons capable of bearing arms: and if ſo (for I greatly doubt that this computation is exaggerated), it muſt then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, 86 ſeats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village ſchools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the other inhabitants of Germany. The ſame may be ſaid of their cuſtoms and diverſions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES.] The religion of Pruſſia is very tolerant. The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, but chiefly the former; but papiſts, antipœdo-baptiſts, and almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in ſchools. An univerſity was founded at Koningſberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkably learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Pruſſia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contain 280 pariſhes, and the latter 105.

Koningſberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, ſeated on the river Pregel, over which it has ſeven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Buſching, this city is ſeven miles in circumference, and contains 3,800 houſes, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation, I doubt, is a little exaggerated likewiſe, becauſe it ſuppoſes, at an average, near ſixteen perſons in every houſe. Koningſberg has ever made a conſiderable figure in commerce and ſhipping, its river being navigable for ſhips; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, beſides 298 coaſters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the compaſs of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, beſides its college or univerſity, which contains 38 profeſſors, boaſts of magnificent palaces, a town-houſe, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embelliſhments. It has a good harbour and citadel, which is called Fredericſburg, and is a regular ſquare.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The late king of Pruſſia endeavoured to increaſe the commerce of his kingdom; but the deſpotic nature of his government was not favourable to trade and manufactures. The Pruſſian manufactures, however, are not inconſiderable: they conſiſt of glaſs, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and braſs mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, ſilk, ſtockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval ſtores, amber, linſeed and hempſeed, oatmeal, fiſh, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is ſaid that 500 ſhips are loaded every year with thoſe commodities, chiefly from Koningſberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Pruſſian majeſty is abſolute through all his dominions, and he avails himſelf to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of ſtate, viz. 1. The great maſter; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The ſtates conſiſt, 1. Of counſellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Beſides theſe inſtitutions, his late majeſty erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Pruſſian majeſty, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own ſkilful political regulations, derives an

amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known: though we may conclude that it is very conſiderable, from the immenſe charges of the late war. His revenues now, ſince the acceſſion of Poliſh or Royal Pruſſia, muſt be greatly increaſed: excluſive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local ſituation was of vaſt importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Pruſſia. By this acquiſition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Koninſberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Pruſſian army, even in time of peace, conſiſts of about 180,000 of the beſt diſciplined troops in the world; and, during the laſt war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconſiſtent with the intereſts of the people. The army is chiefly compoſed of provincial regiments; the whole Pruſſian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the ſize and populouſneſs of the diviſion, have been originally raiſed, and from it the recruits continue to be taken; and each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of ſons a peaſant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the ſervice except one, who is left to aſſiſt in the management of the farm. The reſt wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are deſtined to be ſoldiers, and obliged to enter into the ſervice whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining ſo large an army, in a country naturally ſo little equal to it, has occaſioned ſuch a drain from population, and ſuch a withdrawing of ſtrength from the labours of the earth, that the late king endeavoured in ſome degree to ſave his own peaſantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. Theſe foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Pruſſians have every year ſome months of furlough, during which they return to the houſes of their fathers or brothers, and work at the buſineſs of the farm, or in any other way they pleaſe.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Pruſſia are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicircular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood; the order of "*Concord*," inſtituted by Chriſtian Erneſt, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to diſtinguiſh the part he had acted in reſtoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. The badge is a gold croſs of eight points, enamelled white; in the centre a medal bearing two olive branches paſſing ſaltier-wiſe through two crowns, and circumſcribed with the word "*Concordans*." The croſs is ſurmounted with an electoral crown, and is worn pendent to an orange ribband. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburgh, and afterwards king of Pruſſia, inſtituted, in 1685, the order of "*Generoſity*." The knights wear a croſs of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Generoſité*," pendent to a blue ribband.

The ſame prince inſtituted the order of the "*Black Eagle*" on the day of his coronation at Koningſberg, in the year 1700; the ſovereign is always grand-maſter, and the number of knights, excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who muſt all be admitted into the order of "*Generoſity*," previous to their receiving

ing this, unleſs they be ſovereign princes. The enſign of the order is a gold croſs, of eight points, enamelled blue, having at each angle a ſpread eagle, enamelled black, being the arms of Pruſſia, and charged in the centre with a cypher of the letters *F. R.* Each knight commonly wears this pendent to a broad orange ribband (out of reſpect to the Orange family) worn ſaſh-wiſe over the left ſhoulder, and a ſilver ſtar embroidered on the left ſide of the coat, whereon is an eſcutcheon, containing a ſpread eagle, holding in one claw a chaplet of laurel, and in the other a thunderbolt, with this motto in gold letters round "*Suum cuique.*". On days of ceremony, the knights wear the badge pendent to a collar, compoſed of round pieces of gold, each enamelled with four cyphers of the letters *F. R.* in the centre of the piece is ſet a diamond, and over each cypher a regal crown, intermixed alternately with eagles diſplayed, enamelled, black, and holding in their claws thunderbolts of gold. The knights' caps are of black velvet with white plumes.

The order of "*Merit*" was inſtituted by the late king in the year 1740, to reward the merit of perſons either in arms or arts, without diſtinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is ſovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. The enſign is a croſs of eight points, enamelled blue, and edged with gold, having in the centre a cypher of the letters *F. R.* and in each angle an eagle diſplayed, black, on the two upper points the regal crown of Pruſſia; on the reverſe, the motto "*Pour le Merite.*" The badge is worn round the neck, pendent to a black ribband, edged with ſilver.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is loſt in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, deſcended from the Sclavonians, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Chriſtianity, wanted to ſubject them to ſlavery. They made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleſlaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their converſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vaſt waſte of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order and Caſimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cauſe of the oppreſſed people, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part, but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, laid aſide the habit of his order, embraced Lutheraniſm, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia (formerly called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia), but to be held as fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic-William of Brandenburg, deſervedly called the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by John Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendants were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburgh were now of that perſuaſion, the proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederic, the ſon of Frederic-William the Great, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates, and proclaimed January 18, 1701, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, the late king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no idea of this firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic-William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural parts, and performed prodigious ſervices to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left ſeven millions ſterling in his treaſury, which enabled his ſon, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful reſources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the preſent age. He improved the arts of peace, as well as of war, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet, philoſopher, and legiſlator. Some of the principal tranſactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the hiſtory of Germany. In the year 1783 he publiſhed a reſcript, ſignifying his pleaſure that no kneeling in future ſhould be practiſed in honour of his perſon, aſſigning for his reaſon, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the divinity: and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him in 1782 in draining marſhes, eſtabliſhing factories, ſettling colonies, relieving diſtreſs, and in other purpoſes of philanthropy and policy.

The Pruſſian is not one of thoſe ancient monarchies which had their origin in the diſtant ages of confuſion, and which eſtabliſhed and gradually aggrandized themſelves, rather by accidental events and the changes of time, or the weakneſs of nations, than by the extraordinary genius of their ſovereigns. It is a new monarchy like that of Macedon, under Philip and Alexander, which has been created in a ſhort ſpace of time; not by thoſe great means that hazard and good fortune, and, above all, the marriages of ſovereigns occaſion; but principally by the ſuperior qualities of a creative genius; by exalted virtues, civil and military; by the employment of politics juſt, ſafe and active; by that vaſtneſs of head and heart, which knows how to tranſpoſe itſelf into the people, and inſpire a national caſt for courage, induſtry, activity and glory. The Pruſſian monarchy ſhines to-day without diſpute in the firſt claſs of ſovereignties, and can take a decided part for the preſervation of the equilibrium in Germany and Europe. A concluſion then can be drawn with tolerable certainty, that a monarch of Pruſſia merits preferably the ſuffrage and confidence of Europe, and all the princes of Germany, for it is his proper intereſt to be juſt, to be the defender of the balance and of general liberty.

The celebrated Germanic union, for the preſervation of the conſtitution, concluded in the laſt year of the life of Frederic III. is ſaid to be in part the work of that great man. He conceived the firſt idea of it in the year 1784, and it was publicly concluded in July 1785.

This patriotic union, which has no other object but to ſecure and preſerve the ſupport of the ancient and venerable conſtitution of the empire, and keep up an efficacious harmony among all its members, gathers daily additional ſtrength under the new reign.

It is ſelf evident that the happy ſtate of the Pruſſian monarchy will depend always on the genius and activity of its ſovereigns: a Frederic III. was abſolutely neceſſary in order to give to his ſtate (ſo inconſequential for its extent and the quality of its ſoil) a degree of power which puts it on a level with the firſt monarchies of Europe; to aſſure it a conſiſtence, which will be ſo long permanent as the maxims of good government be obſerved; and to make it perform the brilliant,

although

although dangerous and difficult part, which it is obliged to ſuſtain on account of the local poſition of the monarchy, for its own proper preſervation, that of the balance of Germany and of Europe.

Frederic III. king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburgh, was born in 1712, married in 1733, to Elizabeth-Chriſtina of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel, born in 1714, by whom he had no iſſue. He died Auguſt 17, 1786, aged 75, having reigned 46 years, 2 months, 17 days, and was ſucceeded by

Frederic William, his nephew, and ſon of his brother William Auguſtus. His preſent majeſty hath not, as yet, attempted any military atchievement, farther than marching his troops into Holland, as hath been related in the hiſtory of that country. He was born in 1744, and married in 1765 to the princeſs Elizabetha Chriſtina Ulrica, of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttel; and ſecondly in 1769, to Frederica Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt. Iſſue by the firſt, a princeſs; by the ſecond, Frederic-William, prince royal, and ſeveral other children. Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina, his majeſty's ſiſter, was married in 1767 to the prince of Orange.

The KINGDOM of BOHEMIA.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.	
Length	478	between	48 and 52	North latitude.
Breadth	322		12 and 19	Eaſt longitude.

Boundaries. BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, on the Eaſt; by Auſtria and Bavaria, on the South; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the Weſt; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and, 3. Moravia.

Diviſions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.	Prague, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50. Koningſgratz, E. Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. Egra, W.	Length 162 Breadth 142	12,060
2. Sileſia, Eaſt, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.	Breſlaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15. Glogaw, N. Croſſen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. Teſchen, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Length 196 Breadth 92	10,250
3. Moravia, S. entirely ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. Brin, middle Igla, S. W.	Length 120 Breadth 88	5,424

Soil.

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought ſo wholeſome as that of the reſt of Germany, though its ſoil and produce are pretty much the ſame.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, contains none of note or diſtinction; its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron, and glaſs.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] We have no certain account of the preſent population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but they are thought at preſent not to exceed 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their perſons, habits, and manners, reſemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle ſtate of people; for every lord is a ſovereign, and every tenant a ſlave. But the late emperor generouſly diſcharged the Bohemian peaſants, on the Imperial demeſnes, from the ſtate of villanage in which they had been ſo long and ſo unjuſtly retained; and it will be happy if his Imperial majeſty's example ſhould be followed by the Bohemian nobility. Although the Bohemians, at preſent, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly diſtinguiſhed themſelves as the moſt intrepid aſſertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witneſs the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was ſcarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Auſtrian power, and their generous ſtruggles for independency. Their virtues may be conſidered as the cauſes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their deſpotic maſters for breaking their ſpirit: though it is certain their internal jealouſies and diſſenſions greatly contributed to their ſubjection. Their cuſtoms and diverſions are the ſame as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the eſtabliſhed religion of Bohemia, yet there are many proteſtants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion; and ſome of the Moravians have embraced a viſionary unintelligible proteſtantiſm, if it deſerves that name, which they have propagated, by their zealous miſſionaries, in ſeveral parts of the globe; ſome of whom a few years ago made proſelytes in Great Britain; they have ſtill a meeting-houſe in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a ſettlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICK AND BISHOPRICKS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbiſhoprick. The biſhopricks are Koningſgratz, Breſlaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally ſpeak German.

UNIVERSITY.] The only univerſity in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the fineſt and moſt magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is ſo large, that the grand Pruſſian army, in its laſt ſiege, could never completely inveſt it. The inhabitants ſcarcely exceed 70,000 Chriſtians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloiſters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are ſaid to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, ſome of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for ſtrength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glaſs, paper, and gunpowder. Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia, hath been already deſcribed.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt; but the government, under the houſe of Auſtria, is deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of towns. Their ſovereigns, of late, have not been fond of provoking them by ill uſage, as they have a general averſion to the Auſtrians. This kingdom is frequently deſcribed as part of Germany, but with little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. What gives ſome colour to this miſtake is, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the ſovereign is pleaſed to exact from the ſtates of the kingdom, when they are annually aſſembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and paſſed in ſaltier, crowned, langued, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility uſed to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany ſometimes impoſed a king upon them, and at length uſurped that throne themſelves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Auſtria, received three crowns, Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414 John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, two of the firſt reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Conſtance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famus Ziſca, aſſembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in ſeveral engagements, and drove the Imperialiſts out of the kingdom. The diviſions of the Huſſites among themſelves enabled the emperors to keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the Imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a proteſtant king in the perſon of the prince Palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being ſtripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for ſubſiſtence. After a war of 30 years duration, which deſolated the whole empire, the Bohemians, ſince that time, have remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	300	between	17 and 23 east longitude.	36,060.
Breadth	200		45 and 49 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria (for it formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries), is bounded by Poland, on the North; by Tranſylvania and Walachia, Eaſt; by Sclavonia, South; and by Auſtria and Moravia, Weſt.

The

The kingdom of Hungary is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

Upper HUNGARY, North of the Danube.	Lower HUNGARY, South of the Danube.
Chief Towns.	Chief Towns.
Preſburg, ſituate on the Danube, E. lon. 17-30. N. lat. 48-20.	Buda, on the Danube, E. long. 19-20 N. lat. 47-40.
Newhauſel, N. W.	Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
Leopolſtadt, N. W.	Comorra, on the Danube, in the iſland of Schut.
Chremnits, N. W.	Raab, on the Danube, oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Schemnits, in the middle.	Atlenburg, W. oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Eſperies, N.	Weiſſenburg, or Alba Regalis, ſituated E. of the lake called the Platten ſea.
Caſchaw, N.	Kaniſba, S. W. of the Platten ſea.
Tokay, N. E.	Five churches, N. of the river Drave.
Zotmar, N. E.	
Unguar, N. E.	
Mongats, N. E.	
Waradin, Great, E.	
Segedin, S. E.	
Agria, in the middle.	
Peſt, on the Danube, oppoſite to Buda.	

To which may be added Temeſwar, which has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary, becauſe it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has ſeveral times been in poſſeſſion of the Turks; but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeſwar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3850 ſquare miles: it has been divided into four diſtricts, Cſadat, Temeſwar, Werſchez, and Lugos. Temeſwar, the principal town, is ſituated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

Air, soil, and produce.] The air, and conſequently the climate of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes; but the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt a richer ſoil than that plain which extends 300 miles from Preſburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: corn is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one-ſixth part of its price in England.

Rivers.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

Water.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

Mountains.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow the richeſt grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, cryſocolla, and terra ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and other parts of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their works being deſtroyed or demoliſhed; ſome of them, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally mouſe-coloured, and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country, at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary, and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, Hungary was one of the moſt populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe; and if the houſe of Auſtria ſhould give proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become ſo again, in about a century hence. Both Hungaries at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themſelves. They pique themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes, who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In their perſons they are well made. Their fur caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under the arm, ſo that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms are a broad ſword, and a kind of pole-ax, beſides their fire arms. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria, and their ſable dreſs with ſleeves ſtrait to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine-towns, wear fur and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns upon the roads are miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peaſants, and their poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, are the predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other ſtrangers ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that, rather than be tyranniſed over by the houſe of Auſtria, they often put themſelves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empreſs-queen, notwithſtanding the provocations they received from her houſe, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeſwar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at about 450,000. There are in this country many

faraons,

faraons, or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be real deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are ſaid to reſemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propenſity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and cuſtoms; and it is aſſerted, that the laſcivious dances of Iſis, the worſhip of onions, many famous Egyptian ſuperſtitions and ſpecifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung are ſtill in uſe among the female gypſies in Temeſwar.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians is the Roman-catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are Proteſtants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exerciſe of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza. The biſhopricks are, Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and Five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is ſaid to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemoſt rank ſpeak German, and almoſt all even of the common people ſpeak Latin, either pure or barbarous, ſo that the Latin may be ſaid to be here ſtill a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the univerſities (if they can properly be ſo called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſchaw, are profeſſors of the ſeveral arts and ſciences, who uſed generally to be Jeſuits; ſo that the Lutherans and Calviniſts, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The artificial curioſities of this country conſiſt of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Eſſeck built over the Danube, and Drave is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge, erected by the Romans, judged to be the moſt magnificient of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away farther ſouth than has been yet diſcovered; as far as it is practicable, to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article of great curioſity. Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary, and ſome of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Theſe are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence, but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, but were lately removed to Vienna. The crown was ſent, in the year 1000, by pope Sylveſter II. to Stephen King of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of ſolid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 ſapphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Beſides theſe ſtones are the images of the apoſtles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was afterwards inſerted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronaiton a biſhop carries it before the king. From the croſs is derived the title of apoſtolic king; the uſe of which was renewed under the reign of the empreſs-queen Maria

Thereſa. The ſceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is the work of Giſele, ſpouſe of St. Stephen, who embroidered in gold the image of Jeſus Chriſt crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apoſtles, with a number of inſcriptions. The ſword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence but its ſtrength and fortifications; and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives conſiſt of metals, drugs, and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of queen and even called their late ſovereign king Thereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet of parliament, a Hungary-office, which reſembles our chancery, and which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction, does at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate; and the Geſpan chatts reſemble our juſtices of the peace. Beſides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring to the field, at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of it above 10,000; theſe are generally light-horſe, and well known to modern times by the name of Huſſars. They are not near ſo large as the German horſe; and therefore the Huſſars ſtand upon their ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike. Their expedition and alertneſs have been found ſo ſerviceable in war, that the greateſt powers in Europe have troops that go by the ſame name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to their number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horſe and foot form an excellent militia, very good at a purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are ſtill extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete ſeries of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial enſigns, bears quarterly, barwiſe argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after ſubduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. they were ſucceeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards, they by the Avari, who were followed by the Sclavi, in the beginning of the ninth century. At the cloſe of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took poſſeſſion of the country. Hungary was formerly an aſſemblage of different ſtates, and the firſt who aſſumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Chriſtianity. In his reign, the form of government was eſtabliſhed, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert aſcended the throne, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of thoſe conqueſts were afterwards reduced by the Venetian, Turks, and other powers. In the fifteenth century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, bravely repulſed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladiſlaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raiſed Matthius Corvinus, ſon of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting againſt Solyman, emperor of the Turks.

This battle had almoſt proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, bother to the emperor Charles V. having married the ſiſter of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he ſucceeded, with ſome difficulty, and that kingdom has ever ſince belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, though by its conſtitution its crown ought to be elective. For the reſt of the Hungarian hiſtory, ſee Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

I HAVE thrown theſe countries under one diviſion, for ſeveral reaſons, and particularly becauſe we have no account ſufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The beſt account of them is as follows: TRANSYLVANIA belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, and is bounded on the North by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the Eaſt by Moldavia aad Walachia; on the South by Walachia; and on the Weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 25 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 ſquare miles, ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is wholeſome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanſtadt, and its interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independent ſtates and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal ſubjection to the Auſtrians, who leave them in poſſeſſion of moſt of their privileges. Papiſts, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other ſectaries, here enjoy their ſeveral religions. Tranſylvania is thought to add but little to the Auſtrian revenue, though it exports ſome metals and ſalt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageſwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All ſorts of proviſions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanſtadt is a large, ſtrong, and well built city, as are Clauſenburg and Weiſſeburg. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtadt, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of Roman catholics, Calviniſts, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations in caſe of grievances.

Tranſylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be ſubdued. It was over-run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their deſcendants retain the ſame military character. The population of the country is not aſcertained; but if the Tranſylvanians can bring to the field, as has been aſſerted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants muſt be conſiderable. At preſent its military force is reduced to ſix regiments of 1500 men each; but it is well known, that during the laſt two wars, in which the houſe of Auſtria was engaged, the Tranſylvanians did great ſervices. Hermanſtadt is its only biſhoprick; and the Tranſylvanians at preſent ſeem to trouble themſelves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the eſtabliſhed church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Chriſtianity there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by a Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under ſlavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz,

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in 1699, gave the ſovereignty of Tranſylvania, as alſo of Sclavonia, to the houſe of Auſtria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal ariſtocracy, which their ſovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October, 1784, on accountof the rea or feigned oppreſſions of the nobility, near 16,000 aſſembled and committed great depredations on thoſe whoſe conduct had been reſented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to eſcape with their lives. The revolters were diſappointed in their attempt on Clauſenburg; and afterwards offered to ſeparate and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vaſſalage. In the preſent ſituation of the Auſtrians lenient terms, have been granted to them, and with the puniſhment of a few, the inſurrection is ſuppreſſed.

SCLAVONIA lies between the 16th and 23d degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the Eaſt, by the Save on the South, and by Kiria in Auſtria on the Weſt. The reaſon why Hungary, Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria in thoſe parts, contain a ſurpriſing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is becauſe liberty here made its laſt ſtand againſt the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into thoſe quarters. The thickneſs of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the ſtrength of the country, favoured their reſiſtance; and their deſcendants, notwithſtanding the power of the Turks, the Auſtrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, ſtill retain the ſame ſpirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the ſovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them moſt at liberty. That they are generous as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the houſe of Auſtria, which, till the laſt two wars, never was ſenſible of their value and valour; inſomuch that it is well known, that they preſerved the pragmatic ſanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave ſo much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *ſlave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, ſo late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Tranſylvania, yet the ravages of war are ſtill viſible in the face of the country, which lies in a great meaſure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two biſhopricks; that of Poſega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no univerſities. Eſſeck is a large and ſtrong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marſhes five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Auſtrians and Turks. The inhabitants are compoſed of Servians, Radzians, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vaſt number of other people, whoſe names were never known even to the Auſtrians themſelves, but from the military muſter-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the two laſt wars. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the Sates ſend repreſentatives to the diet of Hungary.

CROATIA lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and about 2500 ſquare miles. The manners, government, religion, language and cuſtoms of the Croats, are ſimilar to thoſe of the Sclavonians and Tranſylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as ſuch are famed in modern hiſtory, under the name of Pandours, and various other deſignations.

nations. The truth is, the houſe of Auſtria finds its intereſt in ſuffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Their towns are blended with each other, there ſcarcely being any diſtinction of boundaries. Carolſtadt is a place of ſome note, but Zagrab (already mentioned) is the capital of Croatia. All the ſovereignty exerciſed over them by the Auſtrians ſeems to conſiſt in the military arrangements for bringing them occaſionally into the field. A viceroy preſides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and

Hungarian DALMATIA: this lies in the upper part of the Adriatic ſea, and conſiſts of five diſtricts, in which the moſt remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is ſituated near the ſea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren ſoil. The biſhop of this place is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor reſides in the old palace, called the Royal Caſtle. 2. Ottoſchatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortreſs where the governor, and the greateſt part of the garriſon reſide, is ſurrounded with a wall, and ſome towers: but the reſt of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; ſo that one neighbour cannot viſit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uſcocs, a people, who being galled by oppreſſion, eſcaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained, the name of Uſcocs, from the word Scoco, which ſignifies a *deſerter*. They are alſo called ſpringers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in ſcattered houſes, and others in large villages. They are a rough, ſavage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their viſible employment is grazing. They uſe the Walachian language, and in their religious ſentiments and mode of worſhip approach neareſt to the Greek church; but ſome of them are Roman catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs alſo to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the eaſt of Tranſylvania, and its principal towns are Tregonitz, Buchareſt, and Severin.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700	between	16 and 34 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 680		46 and 57 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the late extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed (part of ancient Sarmatia) was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic ſea; on the Eaſt, by Muſcovy; on the South, by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the Weſt, by Germany: and had the form of its government been as perfect as its ſituation was compact, it might have been one of the moſt powerful kingdoms in Europe. Its grand diviſions were,

	Poland.	Square Miles	Length	Breadth	Chief Cities.	
Proteſtants.	Courland, ſubject to Ruſſia.	4,414	174	80	Mittaw	
Papiſts.	Lithuania,	64,800	333	310	Wilna	Great part of this diſtrict is now poſſeſſed by Ruſſia.
	Podolia,	29,000	360	120	Kaminieck	
	Volhinia,	25,000	305	150	Lucko	
	Great Poland,	19,200	208	180	Gneſna	
	Red Ruſſia,	25,200	232	185	Lemburg	Now chiefly ſubject to Auſtria.
	Little Poland,	18,000	230	130	Cracow	
	Poleſia,	14,000	186	97	Breſſici	
	Maſovia,	8,400	152	90	Warsaw	E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia,	8,000	155	98	Raſiem	
	Pruſſia Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia,	6,400	118	104	Elbing	Now ſubject to Pruſſia.
	Polachia,	4,000	133	42	Bielh	
	Total—	226,414				

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Pruſſia Royal, are ſtyled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two laſt have been ſeized by the King of Pruſſia, and moſt of the privileges of the firſt.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word, ſignifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the northern parts it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, but the air is rather inſalubrious by reaſon of the numerous woods and moraſſes.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities that are ſent from thence down the Viſtula, to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The paſtures of Poland, eſpecially in Podolia, are extremely rich. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron ochre, black agate, ſeveral ſpecies of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite: falſe precious ſtones, and marine petrifactions. The interior parts of Poland contain foreſts which furniſh timber in ſuch great quantities, that it is employed in houſe building, inſtead of bricks, ſtone, and tyles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and ſome grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine ſeldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clay fit for pipes and earthern ware. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring, in the Palatine of Cracow, which increaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and ſome of them to 150 years of age. This ſpring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the ſurface, without heating the water; and if left unextinguiſhed, it communicates itſelf, by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it

it conſumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years, becauſe they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Viſtula or Weyſel, the Neiſter, Neiper, or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the Palatinate of Byzeſty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though ſome are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food, dreſſed various ways. A great quntity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fiſt, ſuppoſed to be the production of a reſinous pine.

The foreſts of Warſovia, or Maſovia, contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves, boars, the glouton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Poliſh foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes and aſſes, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the beſt furs in the country. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious part of their greateſt feaſts. His body is of the deer-make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, and feet broad and cloven, the horns large, rough and broad, like a wild goat's. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that upon diſſecting an elk, there was found in its head ſome large flies with its brains almoſt eaten away; and it is an obſervation ſufficiently atteſted, that in the large woods and wilderneſſes of the North, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger ſort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-ſickneſs, by which means it is taken which would otherwiſe prove no eaſy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it reſembles a guinea-pig, but ſeems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occaſionally for food, till April: they have ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any ſpecies of birds peculiar to itſelf; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and that their fleſh is reckoned unwholeſome. Lithuania is rich in birds; among thoſe of prey, are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little ſpecies of titmouſe, is frequently found in thoſe parts, famous for the wonderous ſtructure of its pendent neſt, formed in the ſhape of a long purſe, with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] Some authors have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants: and when we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, and ſometimes have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are ſaid to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation is not exaggerated. But ſince the partition and diſmemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000 of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Ruſſia are the largeſt, by the Auſtrian the moſt populous, and by the Pruſſian the moſt commercial. The Ruſſian contain 1,500,000; the Auſtrian 2,500,000; and the Pruſſian about 860,000, amounting to about 5,000,000 of ſouls ſeparated from their ancient kingdom.

The poles, in their perſons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable:

and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands. Their diverſions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horſe, hunting, ſkaiting, bull and bear beating. They uſually travel on horſeback: a Poliſh gentleman will not travel a ſtone's-throw without his horſe; and they are ſo hardy, that they will ſleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in froſt and ſnow. The Poles never lie above ſtairs, and their apartments are not united; the kitchen is on one ſide, the ſtable on another, the dwelling-houſe on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themſelves with a few ſmall beds, and if any lodge at their houſes, they muſt carry their bedding with them. When they ſit down to dinner or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for the nobles, who are poor, frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving them that are rich: but their patron uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peaſant boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons, but every gueſt brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table, than all the doors are ſhut, and not opened till the company return home. It is uſual for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf: but this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be conſidered that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to deſcribe the grandeur and equipages of the Poliſh nobility; and the reader may figure to himſelf an idea of all that is faſtidious, ceremonious, expenſive and ſhewy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unuſual to ſee the lady of a Poliſh grandee, beſides a coach and ſix, with a great number of ſervants, attended by an old gentleman-uſher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of their pomp, however, is proportioned to their eſtates; but each perſon goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens, and peaſants: the peaſants are divided into two ſorts, thoſe of the crown, and thoſe belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the higheſt appellation they can enjoy. They have many conſiderable privileges; and indeed the boaſted Poliſh liberty is properly liberty to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient cuſtom and preſcription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals, pay no taxes, are ſubject to none but the king, may chuſe whom they will for their king, and lay him under what reſtraint they pleaſe by the *pacta conventa*; and none but they, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, can purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they are almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated ſtate; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. Theſe great privileges make the Poliſh gentry powerful; and many of them have large territories, and, as we have ſaid, with a deſpotic power over their tenants, whom they call their ſubjects, and transfer or aſſign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Caſimir the Great, the lord could put his peaſant to death with impunity,

and

and when the latter had no children, conſidered himſelf as the heir, and ſeized all his effects. In 1347, Caſimir preſcribed a fine for the murder of a peaſant, and enacted, that in caſe of his deceaſe without iſſue, his next heir ſhould inherit. But theſe and other regulations have proved ineffectual againſt the power and tyranny of the nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some of them have eſtates of from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles poſſeſſes above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raiſe 8 or 10,000 men. The houſe of a nobleman is a ſecure aſylum for perſons who have committed any crime; for none muſt preſume to take them from thence by force. They have their horſe and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their antichambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, ſome of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the ſenate are often determined by the ſword. When great men have ſuits at law, the diet, or other tribunals decide them; yet the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword, for the juſtice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raiſe 5 or 6000 men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's cities, and beſiege caſtles and forts; for they think it below them to ſubmit to the ſentence of judges, without a field-battle. As to the peaſants, they are born ſlaves, and have no notion of liberty. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peaſant equal in value. A nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence and the advantage of his lord.

The peaſants having no property, all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich their maſter. They are indiſpenſably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters who oppreſs them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment. One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy to hardſhips and ſevere labour, the generality of them ſcarcely entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperor order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their ſevere lot. Chearful and contented with their condition, they are ready, upon every occaſion, to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their maſter, eſpecially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Moſt of them ſeem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. I have been the more circumſtantial in deſcribing the manners and preſent ſtate of the Poles, as they bear a near reſemblance, in many particulars, to thoſe of Europe in general during the feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants and vaſſals ſeems to be carried to a much greater height. Lately indeed, a few nobles of enlightened underſtandings, have ventured to give liberty to their vaſſals. The firſt who granted this freedom, was Zamoiſki, formerly great chancellor, who, in 1760, enfranchiſed ſix villages in the palatine of Maſovia, and afterwards on all his eſtates.

Upon ſigning the deed of enfranchiſement of the ſix villages, their benevolent maſters intimated ſome apprehenſions to the inhabitants, leſt encouraged by their freedom, they ſhould fall into every ſpecies of licentiouſneſs, and commit more diſ-

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orders than when they were ſlaves. The ſimplicity and good ſenſe of their anſwer is remarkable, " when we had no other property," returned they, " than the ſtick which we hold in our hands, we were deſtitute of all encouragement to a right conduct; and, having nothing to loſe, acted on all occaſions in an inconſiderate manner; but as ſoon as our houſes, our lands, and our cattle, are our own, the fear of forfeiting them will be a conſtant reſtraint upon our actions."

The ſincerity of this anſwer was manifeſted by the event which hath ſhewn the project to be no leſs judicious than humane; friendly to the noble's own intereſts as well as the happineſs of the peaſants, for it appears, that in the diſtricts which the new arrangement hath been introduced, the population of the villages is conſiderably increaſed, and the revenues of their eſtates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Staniſlaus, nephew to the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchiſed four villages near Warſaw, and hath not only emancipated his peaſants from ſlavery, but condeſcends to direct their affairs.

The inns in this country are long ſtables built with boards and covered with ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there is a chamber at one end, but none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ſo that ſtrangers generally chooſe rather to lodge among the horſes. Travellers are obliged to carry proviſions with them; and when foreigners want a ſupply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with neceſſaries.

It may be proper to obſerve, in this place, that in this country, there are ſeveral perſons with matted or clotted hair, which conſtitutes a diſorder called *Plica Polonica*; it receives that denomination, becauſe it is conſidered as peculiar to Poland; although it is not unfrequent in Hungary, Tartary, and ſeveral adjacent nations, and inſtances of it are occaſionally to be found in other countries.

According to the obſervations of Dr. Vicat, an ingenious Swiſs phyſician long reſident in Poland, and who has publiſhed a ſatisfactory treatiſe upon this ſubject; the *Plica Polonica* is ſuppoſed to proceed from an acrid humour penetrating into the hair, which is tubular: it then exudes either from its ſides or extremities, and clots the whole together, either in ſeparate folds, or in one undiſtinguiſhed maſs. Its ſymptoms, more or leſs violent, according to the conſtitution of the patient, or malignity of the diſeaſe, are itchings, ſwellings, eruptions, ulcers, intermitting fevers, pains in the head, languor, lowneſs of ſpirits, rheumatiſm, gout, and ſometimes even convulſions, palſy, and madneſs. Theſe ſyſtems gradually decreaſe as the hair becomes affected. If the patient is ſhaved in the head, he relapſes into all the dreadful complaints which preceded the eruption of the *Plica*; and he continues to labour under them, until a freſh growth of hair abſorbs the acrid humour. This diſorder is thought hereditary, and is proved to be contagious when in a virulent ſtate.

Many phyſical cauſes have been ſuppoſed to concur in rendering the *Plica* more frequent in theſe regions than in other parts. The *firſt* cauſe is the nature of the Poliſh air, which is rendered inſalubrious by the numerous woods and moraſſes; and occaſionally derives an uncommon keenneſs even in the midſt of ſummer from the poſition of the Carpathian mountains; for the ſouthern and ſouth-eaſterly winds, which uſually convey warmth in other regions, are in this chilled in the paſſage over their ſnowy ſummits. The *ſecond* is unwholeſome water; for although Poland is not deficient in good ſprings, yet the common people uſually drink that which is neareſt at hand. The *third* cauſe is the groſs inattention of the natives to cleanlineſs; for experience ſhews, that thoſe who are not negligent in their perſons and habitations, are leſs liable to be afflicted with the plica, than others who are deficient in that particular. All theſe cauſes, and particularly the laſt, aſſiſt its propagation, inflame its ſymptoms, and protract its cure.

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In a word, the *Plica Polonica* appears to be a contagious diſtemper; which, like the leproſy, ſtill prevails among a people ignorant in medicine, and inattentive to check its progreſs; but is rarely known in thoſe countries, where proper precautions are taken to prevent its ſpreading.

DRESS.] The dreſs of the Poles is pretty ſingular. They cut the hair of their heads ſhort, and ſhave their beards, leaving only large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves fit as cloſe to their arm as a waiſtcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtbands, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckcloth. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like an half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a ſabre or cutlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty ſuits of cloaths, all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from father to ſon.

Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we muſt acknowledge that of the Poles to be pictureſque and majeſtic. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into his court, and after his reſtoration wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of Engliſh broad-cloth; but diſcontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men, a ſimple Polonaiſe, or long robe edged with fur; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the peaſants, in winter they wear a ſheep's-ſkin with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the ſoles of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the diſtrict of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

RELIGION.] The number of Proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and Calviniſts, in the republic of Poland, is very conſiderable; and when theſe are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called DISSIDENTS. At the ſame time, the Poliſh nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman catholic religion, even to enthuſiaſm. The treaty of Oliva, which was concluded in 1660, and tolerated the Diſſidents, was guaranteed by the principal powers in Europe; but has ſince been ſo far diſregarded by the Poles, that about the year 1724, they made a public maſſacre under the ſanction of law, of the proteſtants at Thorn, for which no ſatisfaction has been as yet obtained. The ſame may be ſaid of the other numerous proviſions made for the protection of the Proteſtants, who were perſecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monaſteries in Poland are by ſome writers ſaid to be 576, and the nunneries 177, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are poſſeſſed of a very large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom. The Poliſh clergy, in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are ſome of the moſt profligate of mankind. They are often ſeen drunk, and led from taverns, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence. After what has been ſaid, the reader cannot be at a loſs to account for the vaſt ſway which the popiſh clergy have had in Poland at different periods, notwithſtanding the treaties and capitulations which have been made in favour of the proteſtants and the members of the Greek church. Indeed,

it has been chiefly owing to the influence and conduct of the popiſh clergy, that the peaſants in Poland have been reduced to ſuch a ſtate of wretched ſlavery.

The principles of Socinianiſm made a very early and conſiderable progreſs in Poland. However, before Socinus came into Poland, it is computed that there were thirty-two congregations in that republic who denied the doctrine of the Trinity. A tranſlation of the Bible into the Poliſh language was publiſhed in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the ſame perſons, the catechiſm, or confeſſion of the Unitarians, was publiſhed at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extenſive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly perſecuted. However, it was lately reſolved between the republic and the partitioning powers, that all Diſſidents ſhould henceforth enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, but continue excluded from the diet, the ſenate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; alſo ſchools and ſeminaries of their own, and are capable of ſitting in the inferior courts of juſtice.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] Poland contains two archbiſhopricks; Gneſna and Lemburg. The archbiſhop of Gneſna, beſides being primate, and, during an inter-reign, prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other biſhops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Poliſh language is a dialect of the Sclavonic, and is both harſh and unharmonious, on account of the vaſt number of conſonants it employs, ſome of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great reſtorer of the true aſtronomical ſyſtem, Vorſtius, and ſome other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet many circumſtances in this country are far from being favourable to learning. Latin is ſpoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in ſome provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever ſhewn for learning, the ſervitude of the lower people, and the univerſal ſuperſtition among all ranks of men, theſe circumſtances have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithſtanding the liberal efforts of his preſent majeſty, ſtill continue to retard the progreſs of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taſte for ſcience hath ſpread itſelf among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accompliſhment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Poland are thoſe of Cracow, Wilna, and Poſna or Poſen. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and has the ſuperviſorſhip of fourteen grammar-ſchools diſperſed through the city, the number of ſtudents in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna was under the ſuperintendance of the Jeſuits, but ſince their ſuppreſſion the king hath eſtabliſhed a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors, and direct their ſalaries and ſtudies: that of Poſna, was rather a Jeſuit's college than an univerſity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations into Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed by bears and other wild beaſts, otherwiſe it is difficult to account for their ſubſiſtence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, diveſted of almoſt all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours: but it is ſaid that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained to the uſe of ſpeech.

The

The ſalt mines of Poland conſiſt of wonderful caverns, ſeveral hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of theſe are dug four different kinds of ſalts; one extremely hard, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; theſe are all brackiſh, but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. Theſe four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one ſide of them is a ſtream of ſalt-water, and on the other one of freſh. The revenue ariſing from thoſe, and other ſalt-mines, is very conſiderable, and formed part of the royal revenue before ſeized by Auſtria; the annual average profit of thoſe of Wiclitzka, eight miles from Cracow, was about 98,000l. ſterling. Out of ſome mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-eaſt of Cracow, are dug ſeveral kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's uſe, and ſupply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preſerved, though buried a vaſt number of years ſince, being neither ſo hard nor ſo black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they uſed to wear. It is thought that this preſerving quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy. Poland can boaſt of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themſelves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, ſilver, and enamelled veſſels, preſented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preſerved in the cathedral of Gneſna.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Warſaw lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of Poland. It is the royal reſidence, and contains many magnificent palaces, and other buildings, beſides churches and convents. It is ſaid to contain near 70,000 inhabitants, but a great number are foreigners. The ſtreets are ſpacious but ill paved, and the greateſt part of the houſes, particularly the ſuburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a ſtrong contraſt of wealth and poverty, as doth every part of this unhappy country. It has little or no commerce. The ſame may be ſaid of Cracow, the ancient capital; for we are told, that notwithſtanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich ſalt mines, and it is ſaid to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconſiderable. The city ſtands in an extenſive plain watered by the Viſtula, and with the ſuburbs occupies a vaſt ſpace of ground, but all together ſcarcely contain 16,000 ſouls. It is ſurrounded with high brick walls, ſtrengthened with round and ſquare towers in the ancient ſtyle of fortification, and is garriſoned with 600 Ruſſians. Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, containing ruined palaces, falling houſes, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants; 1000 of which are Jews, and 3000 are employed in new manufactures of cloths, camblets, linen, cotton, ſilk, ſtuffs, &c. eſtabliſhed there by the king in 1776. He hath alſo eſtabliſhed in this place an academy of phyſic for Lithuania, in which ten ſtudents are inſtructed for phyſic, and twenty for ſurgery, all taught and maintained at his own expence.

Dantzic is the capital of Poliſh Pruſſia, and is famous in hiſtory on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanſeatic aſſociation, commonly called the Hanſe-towns. It is ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houſes generally are five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the preſident de Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*, wherein, under the year 1607, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a ſmall adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts are

equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but later computations fall very conſiderably ſhort of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Buſching, who tells us, that in the year 1752, there died but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numerous; but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries; from whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations: Poland being juſtly deemed the greateſt magazine of corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the greateſt port for diſtributing it: beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores, and vaſt varieties of other articles. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconſiderable town, as ſome pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch; but generally have ſhewn a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants diſcovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Staniſlaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſſians, were at their gates, but even in poſſeſſion of their city.

The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, is, becauſe not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland, reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges.

This city, as well as that of Thorn, was exempted by the late king of Pruſſia from thoſe claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding which, his Pruſſian majeſty, ſoon after, thought proper to ſeize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Poliſh Pruſſia. He then proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and inſupportable duties upon goods exported and imported. To complete the ſyſtem of oppreſſion, cuſtom-houſes were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, ſo that no perſons could go in or out of the town, without being ſearched in the ſtricteſt manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic has received, though few cities have ever exiſted, which have been comprehended in ſo many general and particular treaties, and whoſe rights and liberties have been ſo frequently ſecured, and guaranteed by ſo many great powers, and by ſuch a long and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops on various pretences; by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negociation carried on by deputies at Warſaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September, by which, as now acceded to by the citizens, the place and trade of the city are to be reſtored to its former ſtability. The city of Thorn was alſo treated by the king of Pruſſia in the ſame unjuſt and oppreſſive manner, and is now added to his dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Some linen and woollen cloths, and hard wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland; but commerce is entirely confined to the city of Dantzic, and other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

The

The exports are corn, hemp, flax, horſes, about 100,000 oxen yearly, peltry, timber, honey, and other leſs conſiderable articles; the value of which amounted in 1777, to thirty millions of dollars. The imports, conſiſting of wines, and other foreign luxuries, conſiderably exceeded that ſum.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this ſubject. It differs little from an ariſtocracy, hence Poland has been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warſaw. They elect him on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres; but if the minority are ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſues. Immediately after his election, he ſigns the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages to introduce no foreigners into the army or government; ſo that in fact he is no more than the preſident of the ſenate, which is compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the Palatines, and Caſtellans.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary; the former meet once in two, and ſometimes three years; the latter is ſummoned by the king, upon critical emergencies; but one diſſenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual.

The ſtaroſts properly are governors and judges, in particular ſtaroſties or diſtricts, though ſome enjoy this title without any juriſdiction at all. The Palatines and Caſtellans, beſides being ſenators, are lord lieutenants, and deputy-lieutenants, in their reſpective Palatinates.

Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can ſit but ſix weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different diſtricts. The king ſends them letters containing the heads of the buſineſs that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may ſit in the dietine, and chuſe nuncios or deputies, to carry their reſolutions to the grand diet. The great diet conſiſts of the king, ſenators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and ſeventy for Pruſſia; and it meets twice at Warſaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made this one of the articles of their union with Poland.

The king may nominate the great officers of ſtate, but they are accountable only to the ſenate; neither can he diſplace them when once appointed. When he is abſent from Poland, his place is ſupplied by the archbiſhop of Gneſna, and if that ſee is vacant, by the biſhop of Ploſko.

The ten great officers of ſtate in Poland, who are ſenators, are, the two great marſhals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania; the chancellor of the kingdom, and the chancellor of the duchy; the vice-chancellor of the kingdom, and the vice-chancellor of the duchy; the great general, the great treaſurer of the kingdom, and the ſub-marſhal, or marſhal of the court of the duchy.

Such are the outlines of this motley conſtitution, which was new-modelled with almoſt every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* which he is obliged to ſign; ſo that nothing can be ſaid of it with certainty, there being lately a total diſſolution of all order in Poland, through the influence of ſome of the neighbouring powers, intereſted to foment anarchy and confuſion in the Poliſh councils: and many of the firſt nobility do not bluſh to receive penſions from foreign courts. It muſt, however, be acknowledged, that in the imperfect ſketch I have exhibited, we can diſcern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet inveſt him with an ample prerogative, are worthy of a wiſe people. The inſtitutions of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other proviſions in the republic: but it laboured even in its beſt ſtate under incurable diſorders. The exerciſe of the *veto*, or the

tribunitial negative, that is veſted in every member of a diet or dietine, muſt always be deſtructive of order and goverment. It is founded, however, upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited juriſdiction which the great lords, in former ages, uſed to enjoy all over Europe. According to Mr. Coxe, the privilege in queſtion is not to be found in any period of the Poliſh hiſtory antecedent to the reign of John Caſimir. It was under his adminiſtration, in the year 1652, when the diet of Warſaw was debating upon tranſactions of the utmoſt importance which required a ſpeedy determination, that Sicinſki, nuncio of Upita in Lithuania, cried out, "I ſtop the proceedings." Having uttered theſe words, he quitted the aſſembly, and, repairing immediately to the chancellor, proteſted, that as many acts as had been propoſed and carried contrary to the conſtitution of the republic, if the diet continued to ſit, he ſhould conſider it as an infringement of the laws. The members were thunderſtruck at a proteſt of this nature, hitherto unknown. Warm debates took place about the propriety of continuing or diſſolving the diet; at length, however, the venal and diſcontented faction, who ſupported the proteſt, obtained the majority; and the aſſembly broke up in great confuſion. Such inſolence in an individual, taking upon him to diſſolve the ſupreme aſſembly of the kingdom, could never have been ſuffered, had it it not been for the venal and diſcontented factions, with which the nation was at that time diſtracted. Ever ſince that time, the privilege of every member to ſtop the proceedings of the diet has continued, which is done by the ſingle word *veto*, "I forbid."

The want of ſubordination in the executive parts of the conſtitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemiſh which perhaps may be impracticable to remove, as it can be done only with their own conſent. After all, when we examine the beſt accounts of the preſent conſtitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient hiſtory of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful ſimilarity between what theſe were formerly, and what Poland is at preſent. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwiſe improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their ſovereign, and ſo maintain thoſe unequal privileges which are ſo hurtful to the community. If a nobleman of great abilities, and who happened to poſſeſs an extenſive territory within the kingdom, ſhould be elected ſovereign, he might perhaps, by a proper uſe of the prerogatives of diſpoſing of all places of truſt and profit, and of ennobling the plebeians, eſtabliſh the ſucceſſion in his own family, and deliver the Poles from thoſe perpetual convulſions which generally attend elective kingdoms.

Indeed the partitioning powers, beſide diſmembering the beſt provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the conſtitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confuſion. They inſiſted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at laſt obtained. *Firſt*, "that the crown of Poland ſhall be for ever elective, and all order of ſucceſſion proſcribed:" thus the excluſion of a king's ſon and grandſon, removes the proſpect of an hereditary ſovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom all the evils inſeparable from an elective monarchy. By the *ſecond*, "that foreign candidates to the throne ſhall be excluded, and for the future, no perſon can be choſen king of Poland, except a native Pole of noble origin, and poſſeſſing land in the kingdom," the houſe of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and reſtore its provinces and liberties, are ſet aſide. By the *third*, "the goverment of Poland ſhall

be

be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form; the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equeſtrian order are confirmed in their utmoſt latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council ſhall be eſtabliſhed, in which the executive power ſhall be veſted;" and in this council the equeſtrian order, hitherto excluded from the adminiſtration of affairs in the interval of diets, ſhall be admitted, ſo that the prerogatives of the crown are ſtill farther diminiſhed: but this change of the conſtitution was intended by the partitioning powers to ſerve their own purpoſes, and give a large ſcope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not ſeized.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is ſtinted in the political exerciſe of his prerogative, yet his revenue is ſufficient to maintain him and his houſehold with great ſplendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of ſtate, nor even his body-guards. The preſent king had 1,000,000 and a half of florins ſettled upon him by the commiſſion of ſtate; and the income of his predeceſſors generally amounted to 140,000l. ſterling. The public revenues aroſe chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Auſtrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000l. ſterling; ancient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, and of the goverment of Cracow and diſtrict of Niepoliomicz.

Weſtern Pruſſia was the greateſt loſs to Poland, as by the diſmemberment of that province, the navigation of the Viſtula depends entirely upon the king of Pruſſia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, for Pruſſia has laid ſuch heavy duties on the merchandize paſſing to Dantzic, as greatly to diminiſh the trade of that town, and to transfer a conſiderable part of it to Memel and Koningſburgh.

By the diſmemberment, Poland loſt near half her annual income. To ſupply this deficiency, it became neceſſary to new-model and increaſe the taxes.	£.	ſterl.	
In 1775, all the impoſts amounted to -	323,012	0	0
The neat revenue of the king is - -	194,500	0	0
Out of which he only pays his houſehold expences, and menial ſervants. It ariſes from his royal demeſnes, ſtaroſties, and 74,074l. out of the treaſury.			
Whole revenue - - -	443,938	0	0
Deduct the king's revenue for privy purſe -	194,500	0	0
For army, ſtate officers, and all other charges -	249,438	0	0

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſuch, that they always appear in the field on horſeback; and it is ſaid that Poland can raiſe 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, and that with eaſe; but it muſt be underſtood that ſervants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are ſoon diſmiſſed, becauſe they muſt be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Poliſh grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it conſiſted in 1778, of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7465 in Lithuania. The empreſs of Ruſſia maintains in the country 10,000 ſoldiers, and every garriſon is compoſed of Ruſſians and natives; 1,000 of the former are ſtationed at Warſaw. Theſe hold the nobles in ſubjection, and the king himſelf is little more than a viceroy, while the Ruſſian ambaſſador regulates the affairs of the kingdom under the direction of his court. The poſpolite conſiſts of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, except the chancellor, and the ſtaroſts or governors of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon

upon extraordinary occaſions; but he cannot keep them above ſix weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Poliſh huſſars are the fineſt and moſt ſhowy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both theſe bodies wear defenſive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The reſt of their cavalry are armed with muſkets and heavy ſcymitars. After all that has been ſaid, the Poliſh cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horſes excellent, they are ſtrangers to diſcipline; and when drawn out, notwithſtanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himſelf, have over them, they are oppreſſive and deſtructive to the court. It is certain, notwithſtanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by diſcipline, and that on various occaſions, particularly under John Sobieſki, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. It did not ſuit the Saxon princes, who ſucceeded that hero, to encourage a martial ſpirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been ſince ſeverely felt in that country.

ORDERS.] The order of the "*White Eagle*," was firſt inſtituted by Uladiſlaus in the year 1325, but revived by Auguſtus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him ſome of the Poliſh nobles who, he feared, were inclined to Staniſlaus his competitor; it was conferred alſo on the czar Peter the Great of Ruſſia. The collar is compoſed of eagles diſplayed, and annulets linked together, having pendent to it the badge, which is a croſs of eight points enamelled, gold, bordered white and cantoned with a ſmaller croſs, having a bead on each point charged on one ſide with an eagle, white diſplayed, having over its head an imperial crown, and on the reverſe the king's cypher with this motto, "*Pro fide, rege, et lege.*" The knights commonly wear the badge pendent to a broad blue ribband, worn ſaſh-ways from the right ſhoulder and under the left arm, and a ſtar of eight points embroidered in gold and ſilver alternately on the left ſide of their coat. The preſent king inſtituted the order of "*St. Staniſlaus*," ſoon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion with the image of St. Staniſlaus enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red ribband edged with white. The ſtar of the order is ſilver, and in the centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Staniſlaus Auguſtus Rex) encircled with the motto "*Præmiando incitat.*"

HISTORY.] Poland of old was poſſeſſed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Ruſs and Tartars. It was divided into many ſmall ſtates or principalities, each almoſt independent of another, though they generally had ſome prince who was paramount over the reſt. In the year 700, the people through the oppreſſion of their petty chiefs, gave the ſupreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His poſterity failing, in the year 830, a peaſant, one Piaſtus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was ſo long and auſpicious, that every native Pole who has been ſince elected king is called a Piaſt. From this period, for ſome centuries, we have no very certain records of the hiſtory of Poland. The title of duke was retained till the year 999, when Boleſlaus aſſumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Pruſſia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleſlaus II. added Red Ruſſia to Poland, by marrying the heireſs of that duchy, anno 1059. Jagello, who in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand-duke of Lithuania, and a Pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Chriſtian, but was at pains to bring over his ſubjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to thoſe of Poland, which gave ſuch influence to his poſterity over the hearts

of the Poles, that the crown was preſerved in his family until the male line became extinct in Sigiſmund Auguſtus, in 1572. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. Theſe were Henry, duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Auſtria. The French intereſt prevailed; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had eſpouſed Maximilian's intereſt endeavoured once more to revive his pretenſions; but the majority of the Poles being deſirous to chuſe a prince who might reſide among them, made choice of Stephen Batori prince of Tranſylvania; who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with ſome oppoſition from the Auſtrian faction, took the wiſeſt method to eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne, by marrying Anne, the ſiſter of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, and of the royal houſe of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by eſtabliſhing a new militia, compoſed of the Coſſacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he beſtowed the Ukraine. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John king of Sweden, by Catharine ſiſter of Sigiſmund II. for their king.

Sigiſmund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have already ſeen in the hiſtory of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war enſued between them and the Poles, and terminated in favour of the latter. Sigiſmund being ſecured in the throne of Poland, aſpired to that of Ruſſia as well as Sweden; but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unſucceſsful wars with the Turks and the Swedes. At laſt a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree, that the Swedes ſhould keep Elbing, Memel, Branuſberg and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In the year 1623, Sigiſmund died, and Uladiſlaus his ſon ſucceeded. This prince was ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and the Ruſſians, and obliged the Swedes to reſtore all the Poliſh dominions they had taken in Pruſſia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being inſtigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Coſſacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed was carried on againſt the Coſſacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Coſſacs, who are naturally a brave people, became deſperate; and upon the ſucceſſion of John II. brother to Uladiſlaus, the Coſſac general Schmielinſki defeated the Poles in two great battles, and at laſt forced them to a diſhonourable peace. It appears that, during the courſe of this war, the Poliſh nobility behaved like the worſt of ruffians, and their conduct being highly condemned by John, they as highly condemned the peace he had concluded. While the jealouſy hereby occaſioned, continued, the Ruſſians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Coſſacs, they, in the year 1654, took Smolenſko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Poliſh Pruſſia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The reſiſtance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-aſſemble, and their king, John Caſimir, who had fled into Sileſia, was joined by the Tartars, as well as Poles; ſo that the Swedes, who were diſperſed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the ſame time, diſowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and Engliſh protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburgh acquired the ſovereignty of Ducal Pruſſia, which had ſubmitted to Charles. Thus the latter loſt Poland, of which he had made an almoſt complete conqueſt.

The

The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Pruſſia was reſtored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretenſions to Livonia, and to cede Smolenſko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Ruſſians.

During theſe tranſactions, the Poliſh nobility grew very uneaſy with their king. Some of them were diſſatisfied with the conceſſions he had made to the Coſſacs, many of whom had thrown off the Poliſh yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and ſome with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Caſimir, who very poſſibly had no ſuch intentions, and was fond of retirement and ſtudy, finding that cabals and factions increaſed every day, and that he himſelf might fall a ſacrifice to the public diſcontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germains in France, having employed his latter days in Latin poetical compoſitions, which are far from being deſpicable.

The moſt remote deſcendants of the ancient kings ending in John Caſimir, many foreign candidates preſented themſelves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles choſe for their king a private gentleman of little intereſt, and leſs capacity, one Michael Wieſnowiſki, becauſe he was deſcended from a Piaſt. His reign was diſgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Coſſacs had put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impregnable. The greateſt part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the ſultan. Notwithſtanding thoſe diſgraceful events, the credit of the Poliſh arms was in ſome meaſure maintained by John Sobieſki, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks ſeveral defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieſki was choſen king; and, in 1676, he was ſo ſucceſsful againſt the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had impoſed upon Poland; but they kept poſſeſſion of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieſki, though he had not been well treated by the houſe of Auſtria, was ſo public-ſpirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna, and making a terrible ſlaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious ſervices, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieſki returning to Poland, continued the war againſt the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the ſenate, who ſuſpected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great diſtractions upon Sobieſki's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the Sobieſki family. In the mean while, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the moſt liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almoſt ſure, he was diſappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger ſon prince Alexander Sobieſki, for which ſhe was driven from Warſaw to Dantzic. All of a ſudden, Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, ſtarted up as a candidate, and after a ſham election, being proclaimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, he took poſſeſſion of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to re-eſtabliſh his intereſt, and pretended that he had been actually choſen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe ſeemed to acquieſce in the election of Auguſtus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne by Charles XII. of Sweden (who procured the advancement of Staniſlaus), and afterwards reſtored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the hiſtory of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Auguſtus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon

rious and diſagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Staniſlaus, and were perpetually forming conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural ſon, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to maintain him in that dignity againſt the power of Ruſſia and the jealouſy of the Poles. Auguſtus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to inſure the ſucceſſion of Poland, to his ſon Auguſtus II. (or, as he is called by ſome, III.) This occaſioned a war, in which the French king maintained the intereſt of his father-in-law Staniſlaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a conſiderable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Auguſtus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Ruſſians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he eſcaped with great difficulty into France. I have, in the hiſtory of Germany, mentioned the war between Auguſtus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Ruſſia and Auſtria, and his late Pruſſian majeſty. It is ſufficient to ſay, that though Auguſtus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to ſatisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts: and all he obtained from them was merely ſhelter, when his Pruſſian majeſty drove him from his capital and electorate. Auguſtus died at Dreſden, in 1763, upon which count Staniſlaus Poniatowſki was choſen king, by the name of Staniſlaus Auguſtus; though it is ſaid that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empreſs of Ruſſia. He is a man of abilities and addreſs; but from various concurring cauſes, he has had the unhappineſs to ſee Poland, during his reign, a ſcene of deſolation and calamity. In 1766, two Poliſh gentlemen preſented a petition to the king, in the name of all the proteſtant nobility, and in behalf alſo of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be re-inſtated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the ſame footing in every reſpect with the Roman catholic ſubjects of the kingdom. "The difference of ſentiments upon ſome points of religion among Chriſtians," ſaid they in their petition, "ought not to interfere with employments of the ſtate. The different ſects of Chriſtians, although they differ in opinion among themſelves with reſpect to ſome points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their ſovereign, and obedient to his orders: all the Chriſtian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, without having any regard to the religion they profeſs, Chriſtian princes ought only to ſeek after thoſe whoſe merit and talents make them capable of ſerving their country properly." The king gave no anſwer at this time to the petition of the diſſidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the miniſters of the courts of Ruſſia, of London, of Berlin, and of Copenhagen, ſupported their pretenſions. The diet appeared to treat the complaints of the diſſidents with great moderation, which gave ſome flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the late king of Pruſſia appear to have prevented this: for that prince, though he openly profeſſed to be a zealous defender of the cauſe of the diſſidents, yet it was manifeſt from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Ruſſians in the affairs of Poland alſo gave great diſguſt to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation run into confederacies formed in diſtinct provinces; the popiſh clergy were active in oppoſing the cauſe of the diſſidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the moſt cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confuſion, and devaſtation, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almoſt deſtroyed; many of the principal Poliſh families retired into foreign ſtates with their effects; and had it not

been for a body of Ruſſian troops which acted as guards to the king at Warſaw, that city had likewiſe exhibited a ſcene of plunder and maſſacre. To theſe complicated evils, were added, in the year 1770, that moſt dreadful ſcourge the peſtilence, which ſpread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in theſe provinces it is ſaid to have ſwept off 250,000 of the people. Meanwhile, ſome of the Poliſh confederates interceded with the Turks to aſſiſt them againſt their powerful oppreſſors; and a war enſued between the Ruſſians and the Turks on account of Poland. But it has been obſerved, that the conduct of the Grand Signior and of the Ottoman Porte towards the diſtreſſed Poles, were ſtrictly juſt and honourable, and the very reverſe of that of their Chriſtian, Catholic, and Apoſtolic neighbours *.

In the midſt of thoſe turbulent and diſaſtrous ſcenes, the confederates (who ever conſidered the king as unlawfully elected, and who imputed to his fatal elevation and direction, or approbation, all the various ills under which the kingdom groaned from the Ruſſian oppreſſion) planned and executed one of the moſt daring enterprizes of which modern hiſtory makes mention. I mean the attempt to aſſaſſinate the king by Kozinſki and two other chiefs, who choſe thirty-ſeven other perſons to accompany them. They obtained admiſſion into Warſaw unſuſpected or undiſcovered, by the following ſtratagem. They diſguiſed themſelves as peaſants who came to ſell hay, and artfully concealed their ſaddles, arms, and cloaths, ununder the loads of hay which they brought in waggons, the more effectually to eſcape detection.

It was on Sunday night, the 3d of September 1771, between nine and ten o'clock, when the king was returning to the palace from a viſit to his uncle prince Czartoriſki, grand chancellor of Lithuania, that he was attacked by the conſpirators, in the very ſtreets of Warſaw, who ordered his coachman to ſtop upon pain of inſtant death. They fired ſeveral ſhot into the carriage, one of which paſſed through the body of a heyduc, who endeavoured to defend his maſter from the violence of the aſſaſſins. Though fifteen or ſixteen other perſons attended his majeſty, they all baſely abandoned him. Mean while, the king had opened the door of his carriage, with a deſign of effecting his eſcape under ſhelter of the night, which was very dark. He had even alighted, when the aſſaſſins ſeized him by the hair, exclaiming in Poliſh, with horrible execrations, "We have thee now;

* In 764, the empreſs of Ruſſia tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw an act of renunciation, ſigned with her own hand, and ſealed with the ſeal of the empire, wherein ſhe declares, "That ſhe did by no means arrogate either to herſelf, her heirs and ſucceſſors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts or territories, which were actually in poſſeſſion, or ſubject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guarantee to the ſaid kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and diſtricts, which the ſaid kingdom and duchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually poſſeſs; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, againſt the attempts of all and every one who ſhould at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to diſpoſſeſs them of the ſame." In the ſame year did the king of Pruſſia ſign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, that he had no claims, formed no pretenſions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the ſame inſtrument he guarantees, in the moſt ſolemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland againſt every power whatever. The empreſs-queen of Hungary, ſo late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friendſhip for him and the republic was firm and unalterable: that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him: that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing a part of his dominions, nor would even ſuffer any other power to do it."—From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a ſtate, means to annihilate thoſe liberties, ſeize upon thoſe rights, and appropriate thoſe revenues to their own uſe. Such is the faith of princes, the inſtability of human politics, and of human affairs!

thy hour is come." One of them diſcharged a piſtol at him ſo very near, that he felt the heat of the flaſh, while another cut him acroſs the head with a ſabre which penetrated to the bone. They then laid hold of his majeſty by the collar, and, mounting on horſeback, dragged him along the ground between their horſes at full gallop for near five hundred paces through the ſtreets of Warſaw.

The king, after ſuffering incredible hardſhips, at laſt obtained from Kozinſki an inſtant's repoſe. They ſat down together on the ground, and his majeſty employed theſe moments in endeavouring to ſoften his conductor, in which he moſt fortunately ſucceeded, after having given him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of his pardon and ſafety. Judging, however, that it was prudent to gain ſome aſylum without delay, and recollecting that there was a mill at ſome conſiderable diſtance, he immediately made towards it. Kozinſki knocked, but in vain; no anſwer was given: he then broke a pane of glaſs in the window, and intreated for ſhelter to a nobleman who had been plundered by robbers. The miller refuſed, ſuppoſing them to be banditti, and continued for more than half an hour to perſiſt in his denial. At length the king approached, and ſpeaking through the broken pane, endeavoured to perſuade him to admit them under his roof, adding, "If we were robbers, as you ſuppoſe, it would be very eaſy for us to break the whole window, inſtead of one pane of glaſs." This argument prevailed. They at length opened the door, and admitted his majeſty. He immediately wrote a note to general Coccei, colonel of the foot-guards. It was literally as follows: "Par une eſpece de miracle, "Je ſuis ſauvé des mains des aſſaſſins, Je ſuis ici au petit moulin de Mariemont. "Venez au plutôt me tirer d'ici. Je ſuis bleſsé, mais pas fort *.

When the meſſenger arrived with the note, the aſtoniſhment and joy was incredible. Coccei inſtantly rode to the mill, not above half a league from Warſaw, followed by a detachment of the guards. He met Kozinſki at the door with his ſabre drawn, who admitted him as ſoon as he knew him. The king had ſunk into a ſleep, cauſed by his fatigue; and was ſtretched on the ground, covered with the miller's cloak. Coccei immediately threw himſelf at his majeſty's feet, calling him his ſovereign, and kiſſing his hand. It is not eaſy to paint or deſcribe the aſtoniſhment of the miller and his family, who inſtantly imitated Coccei's example by throwing themſelves on their knees. The king returned to Warſaw in general Coccei's carriage, and reached the palace about five in the morning. His wound was found not to be dangerous, and he ſoon recovered the bruiſes and injuries which he had ſuffered during this memorable night.

So extraordinary an eſcape is ſcarce to be paralleled in hiſtory, and affords ample matter of wonder and ſurpriſe. Scarce could the nobility or people at Warſaw credit the evidence of their ſenſes, when they ſaw him return. Certainly, neither the eſcape of the king of France from Damien, or of the king of Portugal from the conſpiracy of the duke d'Aveiro, were equally amazing or improbable, as that of the king of Portugal, which I have related from authorities the higheſt and moſt inconteſtible, as well deſerving a place in this work.

The mill, rendered memorable by ſo ſingular an event, is a wretched Poliſh hovel, at a diſtance from any houſe. But the king has rewarded the miller to the extent of his wiſhes in building him a mill upon the Viſtula, and allowing him a ſmall penſion. From the relentings of Kozinſki, and his poſterior good conduct, as above related, his own life was ſaved, and he now reſides in the papal territories, with an annual penſion from the king. Pulaſki, another of the conſpirators,

* "By a kind of miracle I am eſcaped from the hands of aſſaſſins. I am now at the mill of Mariemont. Come as ſoon as poſſible, and take me from hence. I am wounded, but not dangerouſly."

diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the American ſervice, and was killed in attacking the Britiſh lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Pruſſia, the emperor and empreſs-queen, and the empreſs of Ruſſia, had entered into an alliance to diſmember the kingdom of Poland; though Pruſſia was formerly in a ſtate of vaſſalage to Poland, and the title of king of Pruſſia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1746. Ruſſia in the beginning of the ſeventeenth century ſaw its capital and throne poſſeſſed by the Poles, while Auſtria in 1683 was indebted to a king of Poland for the preſervation of its metropolis, and almoſt for its very exiſtence. The three allied powers, acting in concert, ſet up their formal pretenſions to the reſpective diſtricts which they had allotted for, and guaranteed to, each other: Poliſh or Weſtern Pruſſia, and ſome diſtricts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Pruſſia, almoſt all the ſouth-eaſt parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich ſalt-works of the crown, for the empreſs-queen of Hungary, and Bohemia *; and a large diſtrict of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empreſs of Ruſſia †. But though each of theſe powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them reſpectively, and publiſhed manifeſtos in juſtification of the meaſures which they had taken, yet as they were conſcious that the fallacies by which they ſupported their pretenſions were too groſs to impoſe upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not conſent unanimouſly to ſign a treaty for the ceding of thoſe provinces to them reſpectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered ſtate. In this extremity of diſtreſs, ſeveral of the Poliſh nobility proteſted againſt this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign ſtates, chuſing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiſcated, than to be the inſtruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king of Poland was prevailed upon to ſign this act, and his example was followed by many of his ſubjects.

As to the king of Pruſſia, his conduct in Poland was highly tyrannical and oppreſſive. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off from that province, and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the ſame year, an edict was publiſhed by his Pruſſian majeſty, commanding every perſon, under the ſevereſt penalties, and even corporal puniſhment, to take in payment for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the money offered by his troops and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver, bearing the impreſſion of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, ſeventeen per cent, inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this baſe money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to ſupply his army for two whole years, but to ſtock magazines in the country itſelf, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchaſe corn for their daily ſubſiſtence at an advanced price, and with good money, his

* The diſtrict claimed by Auſtria, was "all that tract of land lying on the right ſide of the Viſtula, from Sileſia above Sandomir to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoiſc, and Rubieſſow, to the Bog: from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Ruſſia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a ſtrait line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrytz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries ſeparating Podolia, from Moldavia. This country is now incorporated with Auſtria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Ruſſian claims compriſe Poliſh Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polotſk to the eaſt of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepſk, Miciſlaw, and two portions of the palatinate of Minſk. This tract of land (Poliſh Livonia excepted) is ſituated in White Ruſſia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the two governments of Polotſk and Mohilef.

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commiſſaries refuſing to take the ſame coin they had paid. At the loweſt calculation he gained, by this maſterly and honeſt manœuvre, ſeven millions of dollars. Having ſtripped the country of money and proviſions, his next attempt was to thin it ſtill more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had been his great aim; for this purpoſe he hit upon a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furniſh a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were ſo heavy, and exceeded at laſt their abilities ſo much, that the prieſts abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. Theſe exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and poſſeſſion taken of the provinces uſurped. From theſe proceedings it would appear that his Pruſſian majeſty knew no rights but his own; no pretenſions but thoſe of the houſe of Brandenburg; no other rule of juſtice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent diſmemberment and partition of Poland has juſtly been conſidered as the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Europe. The ſurprize of a town, the invaſion of an inſignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would ſome years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the deſtruction of a great kingdom, with the conſequent diſarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by neutral nations with the moſt aſtoniſhing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonſtrated againſt the uſurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to ſubmit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the ſenate there was a majority of six, but in the lower houſe, the aſſembly of nuncios, there was but one vote in favour of the meaſure, 54 againſt 53. This is a very alarming circumſtance, and ſhews that a moſt important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general ſyſtem of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for ſome ages an object of unremitting attention. Our anceſtors might, perhaps, on ſome occaſions, diſcover rather more anxiety about preſerving the balance of power in Europe than was neceſſary: but it has been well remarked, that the idea of conſidering Europe as a vaſt commonwealth, of the ſeveral parts being diſtinct and ſeparate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them independent though unequal in power, and of preventing any one from becoming too powerful for the reſt, was great and liberal. It appears to be owing to this ſyſtem, that this ſmall part of the weſtern world has acquired ſo aſtoniſhing a ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a ſimilar ſyſtem of policy, though formed upon a ſmaller ſcale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that ſyſtem.

So great has been the ſpread of the principles of liberty in the preſent age, and ſo cordially have they been received and embraced, that this will leſſen the ſurpriſe of the reader to find that they have made their way into Poland, and that, on the 3d of May 1791, a moſt important revolution took place at Warſaw.

At three o'clock in the morning a numerous aſſembly of Patriots was held in the royal preſence; and at the opening of the ſeſſion of the diet, deſtined to treat of the affairs of the finance, his majeſty himſelf changed the buſineſs of the day by ſaying, that he had planned a conſtitution, and requeſted the ſtates to ſign it. The conſtitution was then read, and conſiſted of ſome pages.

The baſis was that the elector of Saxony be declared ſucceſſor to the crown; and in caſe of his death without male iſſue, that the princeſs his daughter be declared infanta of Poland, and whom ſhe ſhall marry (with conſent of the republic) declared

to

to be king, and their iſſue ſucceſſors to the crown. The queen to be regent till the king is of age, which is to be at 18 years.—The Roman-Catholic faith ſhall be the national religion; but peace is offered to all people, of whatever perſuaſion, and the protection of government.—The lawgiving, the judicial, and the executive powers are ſeparated for ever. The former is to remain deciſive and ſuſpenſive with the ſenate in the diet, or national aſſembly; the latter is to be exerciſed by the king with the ſenators, from whom and others a council of ſix reſponſible miniſters are to be choſen, to which council the king is to be added.——The king has great prerogatives granted him, which give him much weight, but are only calculated to do good. He is to have the nomination of biſhops, ſenators, (or members of the upper houſe, called the houſe of ſenate), and all civil and military officers; and to appoint miniſters as prime agents of the executive power, but they ſhall always be reſponſible and liable to be diſmiſſed.—The perſon of the king ſhall be ſacred and inviolable, and entirely free from reſponſibility, which is equal to the Engliſh maxim that the king can do no wrong.—In times of war he ſhall command and direct all military operations. His title ſhall be "Staniſlaus Auguſtus, by the grace of God, and the wiſhes of the nation, king of Poland." There will be three eſtates, the nobility, the citizens, and the peaſants; the two laſt have every advantage ſecured to them, and the late decrees in their favour have been confirmed. A new code of civil and criminal law is making out. The army is under the executive power.—His majeſty declared that the conſtitution had been framed out of the Engliſh and American forms of government. When the conſtitution was read, the tumult in the diet was very great, ſome for, and others againſt it. However, it was at laſt carried, and the king was requeſted to ſwear to it, which he did in the hands of the biſhop of Cracow, and was followed by moſt of the members. His majeſty then ſaid aloud, "Thoſe who are friends to their country, follow me, and confirm the oath at the altar." All the biſhops, all the ſenators, and moſt of the members followed the king, and took this important oath. A hundred cannon announced to the public the ſwearing to the new conſtitution.—The oath is as follows, "We ſwear before God and the country, to maintain and defend, with all poſſible human power, the preſent conſtitution." The army throughout the kingdom were ordered to take this oath, within one month from the date of the preſent law. And that future ages may know and feel that it is by the aſſiſtance of the Supreme Diſpoſer of nations, that the greateſt obſtacles and difficulties have been ſurmounted, and this happy revolution effected, it was decreed, that a church ſhall be erected and conſecrated to divine Providence, in memory of this event, and at the expence of the ſtates.

Staniſlaus Auguſtus (late count Poniatowſki) was born in 1732, and crowned king of Poland in 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, reſided ſome time in London, and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

SWITZERLAND.

Situation and Extent.

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Length 260 Breadth 100	between	6 and 11 eaſt longitude. 45 and 48 north latitude.

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Switzerland.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Calviniſts.	Berne	2,346	111	87	Berne	
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich	
	Schaffhauſen	140	23	9	Schaffhauſen	
	Baſil	240	21	18	BASIL	47-40. N. lat. 7-40. E. Lon.
Papiſts.	Lucerne	460	33	35	Lucerne	
	Underwalden	270	23	16	Stantz	
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf	
	Suiſſe	250	27	13	Suiſſe	
	Fribourg	370	24	21	Fribourg	
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug	
	Soleure	253	31	24	Soleure, or Solothurn	
Calviniſts and Papiſts.	Appenzel	270	23	21	Appenzel	
	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris	
The ſubjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts and Papiſts.	Baden	216	26	12	Baden	
	Bremgarten				Bremgarten	
	Mellingen				Mellingen	
	Rheinthal	40	20	5	Rhein ck	
	Thurgau	119	18	11	Flowanfield	
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Calviniſts	Griſons	2,270	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Griſons, Calviniſts & Pap.	Chiavanna	472	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio and	360	27	19	Sondrio
	Valteline				
Calviniſts.	Tockenburg	168	27	8	Liechtenſteg
	Geneva	160	13	11	Geneva
	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel
Papiſts.	Valais	1,287	80	30	Sion
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vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the ſummer months in this charming country. It is ſubject to rains and tempeſts; for which reaſon public granaries are every where erected to ſupply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often deſcends from the mountains in large or ſmall cataracts which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and perſevering induſtry are more remarkably conſpicuous than in Switzerland. In paſſing over the mountainous parts thereof, the traveller is ſtruck with admiration, to obſerve rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich paſture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the ſides of ſteep precipices. The inhabitants ſeem to have ſurmounted every obſtruction which ſoil, ſituation, and climate had thrown in their way, and to have ſpread fertility over various ſpots of the country, which nature ſeemed to have conſigned to everlaſting barrenneſs. The feet of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the very ſummits, are covered with vineyards, cornfields, meadows, and paſture-grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, conſiſting almoſt entirely of barren and inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are continually covered with ſnow or ice. The vallies between theſe icy and ſnowy mountains appear like ſo many ſmooth frozen lakes, and from them vaſt fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful ſpots beneath. In ſome parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildneſs to high cultivation; in others the tranſitions are very abrupt, and very ſtriking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly cloathed with woods, and ſtudded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, paſtures which appear ſuſpended in the air, exhibit the moſt delightful landſcape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and ſnow. "Behold our walls and bulwarks," exclaimed a Swiſs peaſant, pointing to the mountains, "Conſtantinople is not ſo ſtrongly fortified." In ſhort, Switzerland abounds with the moſt pictureſque ſcenes; and here are to be found ſome of the moſt ſublime exhibitions of nature, in her moſt awful and tremendous forms, and in thoſe ſtupendous Alps, "whoſe heads touch heaven."

Glaciers.] No ſubject in natural hiſtory is more curious than the origin of theſe glaciers, which are immenſe fields of ice. If a perſon could be conveyed to ſuch an elevation as to embrace at one view the Alps of Switzerland, Savoy, and Dauphine, he would behold a vaſt chain of mountains, interſected by numerous vallies, and compoſed of many parallel chains, the higheſt occupying the center, and the others gradually diminiſhing, in proportion to their diſtance from that center.

The moſt elevated, or central chain would appear briſtled with pointed rocks, and covered, even in ſummer, with ice and ſnow, in all parts that are not abſolutely perpendicular. On each ſide of this chain he would diſcover deep vallies clothed with verdure, peopled with numerous villages, and watered by many rivers. In conſidering theſe objects with greater attention, he would remark that the central chain is compoſed of elevated peaks and diverging ridges, whoſe ſummits are overſpread with ſnow; that the declivities of the peaks and ridges, excepting thoſe parts that are extremely ſteep, are covered with ſnow and ice; and that the intermediate depths and ſpaces between them are filled with immenſe fields of ice, terminating in thoſe cultivated vallies which border the great chain.

Theſe immenſe fields of ice uſually reſt on an inclined plain: being puſhed forwards by the preſſure of their own weight, and but weakly ſupported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are interſected by large tranſverſe crevices; and preſent the appear-

ance of walls, pyramids, and other fantaſtic ſhapes, obſerved at all heights and in all ſituations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe deſcribes the method of travelling over theſe glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole ſpiked with iron; and, in order to ſecure us as much as poſſible from ſlipping, the guides faſtened to our ſhoes *crampons*, or ſmall bars of iron, provided with four ſmall ſpikes of the ſame metal. At other times inſtead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our ſhoes, which more effectually anſwered our purpoſe. The difficulty of croſſing theſe valleys of ice, ariſes from the immenſe chaſms. We rolled down large ſtones into ſeveral of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom, gave us ſome conception of their depth: our guides aſſured us, that in ſome places they are not leſs than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwiſe convey to you an image of this body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chaſms, than by comparing it to a lake inſtantaneouſly frozen in the midſt of a violent ſtorm." In ſpeaking of an unſucceſsful attempt of ſome gentlemen to reach the ſummit of Mount Blanc, he preſents to his readers a moſt horrid image of the danger of theſe chaſms. "As they were returning in great haſte, (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party ſlippid in attempting to leap over a chaſm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, ſpiked with iron, which he ſtruck into the ice; and upon this he hung dreadfully ſuſpended for a few moments, until he was releaſed by his companions."

It is a very curious queſtion amongſt the lovers of natural hiſtory, which is the moſt rational ſyſtem concerning the formation of the glaciers? Are they in a ſtate of augmentation, or diminution; or do they remain within the ſame limits? For the ſolution of this, we refer our inquiſitive readers to the ingenious traveller before mentioned, vol. ii. p. 22—35.

Mountains.] In this mountainous country, where nature is all upon a grand ſcale, Mont Blanc is particularly diſtinguiſhed from other mountains, by having its ſummits and ſides clothed to a conſiderable depth with a mantle of ſnow, almoſt without the intervention of the leaſt rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. According to the calculations of Mr. De Luc, (by whoſe improvement of the barometer elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable), the height of this mountain above the level of the ſea is 2,391$\frac{1}{2}$ French toiſes, or 15,304 Engliſh feet; or according to ſir George Shuckburgh of 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet.—It appears, that the Peak of Teneriff and Ætna have been frequently ſuppoſed to be the higheſt points of the globe, but from the moſt accurate obſervations it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more conſiderable elevation.

	Feet.
Mont Blanc is above the level of the ſea, according to ſir George Shuckburgh's menſuration, which agrees with M. de Sauſſure's obſervations,	15,662
The peak of Teneriff, according to Feuille - -	13,248
Ætna according to ſir George Shuckburgh - -	10,954
Canigou, the higheſt of the Pyrenees - - -	9,222
Ben-nevis, the higheſt mountain in Scotland - -	4,387
Veſuvius according to M. de Sauſſure - - -	3,900
Snowden in Wales	3,555

Hence it will appear that there are no mountains (except thoſe in America, particularly Chimboraco, the higheſt point of the Cordelleras, the elevation of which, according to Condamine, ſurpaſſes 3,000 toiſes, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal to the lattitude of Mont Blanc. Some philoſophers, upon conſidering the great ſuperiority of the Eaſtern rivers over the European, both in depth and breadth, have drawn a preſumptive argument, that the Aſiatic mountains are much more lofty than thoſe of Europe. But conjectures are

now baniſhed from natural philoſophy: and until it ſhall be proved from undoubted calculations that the higheſt part of the Caucaſus riſes more than 15,000 feet above the level of the ſea, Mont Blanc may be fairly conſidered as more elevated.

The ſummit of this mountain was deemed inacceſſible before Dr. Pacard attempted to reach it in 1786, and ſucceeded in the attempt; ſoon after which the ſame journey was undertaken by M. de Sauſſure, the famous philoſopher of Geneva, who publiſhed a very intereſting account of his journey. It was on the firſt of Auguſt 1787 that he began his march from the Priory of Chamouni, accompanied by a ſervant and eighteen guides, to carry a tent, proviſions, inſtruments, &c. M. de Sauſſure paſſed the firſt night at the top of the mountain of la Côte, ſituated to the ſouth of the priory; and 779 toiſes above the village. Hitherto there is no trouble or danger, the aſcent is either on turf, or on rock, and it is eaſily accompliſhed in 5 or 6 hours.

The ſecond day's journey is not ſo eaſy. The glacier of la Côte is to be paſſed, which is difficult and dangerous, being croſſed by wide, deep, and irregular crevices, which frequently cannot be paſſed but over bridges of ſnow, ſometimes very ſlight, and ſuſpended over deep abyſſes. A guide narrowly eſcaped periſhing in one of theſe; he went in the evening with two others to reconnoitre the paſſage; fortunately they had taken the precaution of faſtening themſelves together with cords; the ſnow gave way in the middle of a wide deep crevice, wherein the man was ſuſpended between his two companions. At four o'clock in the afternoon of the ſecond day they again encamped, 1455 toiſes above the priory, 1995 above the ſea, 90 toiſes higher than the pike of Teneriff. Here they ſoon felt the rarity of the air: the barometer was down to 17 inches 10 lines $\frac{29}{31}$. Thoſe hardy fellows, who accompanied our philoſopher, to whom the ſeven or eight hours march, which they had juſt made, was no ſort of fatigue, had ſcarcely thrown up five or ſix ſpadefuls of ſnow, to prepare for fixing the tent, before they were utterly unable to proceed, without reſting every moment. M. de Sauſſure himſelf, who is ſo much accuſtomed to the mountain air, was quite exhauſted with fatigue only in obſerving with his meteorological inſtruments. They were troubled with an inceſſant thirſt, which they had no means of allaying but by melting the ſnow. From the midſt of this plain, encloſed by the higheſt ſummit of Mont Blanc to the ſouth, its lofty ſteps to the eaſt, and the dome of Gouté to the weſt, ſcarcely any thing is to be ſeen but ſnow, pure, and of a moſt dazzling whiteneſs, forming on the higheſt pikes a moſt ſingular contraſt with the almoſt black ſky of thoſe exalted regions. No living creature is to be ſeen, no appearance of vegetation; it is the abode of cold and ſilence.

The guides, fearful of cold, cloſed the openings of the tent ſo carefully, that M. de Sauſſure ſuffered ſo much from heat, and air corrupted by reſpiration, as to be obliged to go out during the night, in order to breathe. He found the moon ſhining with moſt aſtoniſhing brightneſs, in the midſt of an ebony ſky, whilſt Jupiter iſſued all radiant from behind the loftieſt pike to the eaſt of Mont Blanc.—As ſoon as it was light, they found the thermometer 3 degrees below the freezing point. On the third day they ſafely arrived at the ſummit at about eleven o'clock. There is no plain, but it is a long ridge nearly horizontal, in a direction from eaſt to weſt. This ridge is ſo narrow, that two perſons cannot walk a-breaſt on it; eſpecially at the weſt end, where it reſembles the roof of a houſe. In this ſtate of awful elevation, as M. de Sauſſure was putting his inſtruments in order, to obſerve with them, he was obliged every moment to interrupt his obſervations, in order to take breath. If we reflect that the barometer was, on the ſummit, down to 16 inches 1 line, and conſequently that the air was only of about half the common denſity, we ſhall eaſily under-

underſtand, that it was neceſſary to ſupply the defect of denſity by more frequent inſpirations. Now this accelerated the motion of the blood, and the more, becauſe the arteries no longer ſuſtained their ordinary preſſure, inſomuch, that they were all in a fever. M. de Sauſſure continued upon the ſummit of Mont Blance till half an hour paſt three in the afternoon, during which time he carefully made thoſe experiments which were the moſt eſſential, but which the nature of this work will not permit us to inſert. We ſhall only obſerve, that our travellers all returned ſafe and ſound, with their eyes and faces uninjured, which was owing to their having put black crape over their faces; whereas they who had gone up before them returned almoſt blind, and with their ſkin terribly burnt by the reflection of the ſnow.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which riſes in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard, the Aar, the Reuſs, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces ſheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and cheſnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and moſt of the cantons abound in timber. Beſides game, fiſh, and fowl, are alſo found, in ſome of the higher and more inacceſſible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois; whoſe activity in ſcouring along the ſteep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both theſe animals is of ſo hot a nature, that the inhabitants of ſome of theſe mountains, who are much ſubject to pleurifies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diſorder. The fleſh of the chamois is eſteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewiſe found a ſpecies of hares, which in ſummer is ſaid to reſemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, ſo that they are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable among the ſnow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two ſpecies ever copulate together. The white hare ſeldom quits his rocky reſidence. Here are alſo yellow and white foxes, which in winter ſometimes come down into the vallies.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the beſt accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induſtrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general ſimplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankneſs, together with an invincible ſpirit of freedom, are their moſt diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics. A very ſtriking proof of the ſimplicity and openneſs of manners of this people, and of aſtoniſhing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who ſays, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each ſide of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are ſeveral ranges of ſmall ſhops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any paſſengers, who wiſh to become purchaſers, enter the ſhops, take away the merchandize, and depoſit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are likewiſe a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the ſame rank of men in moſt other countries; a taſte for literature is very prevalent among thoſe who are in better circumſtances, and even among many of the loweſt rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conſpicuous in the Swiſs gentry. On the firſt entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but obſerve the air of

content and ſatisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanlineſs of the houſes and of the people is peculiarly ſtriking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dreſs, ſome ſtrong outlines may be traced, which diſtinguiſh this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppreſſions of deſpotic government. Even the Swiſs cottages convey the livelieſt image of cleanlineſs, eaſe, and ſimplicity, and cannot but ſtrongly impreſs upon the obſerver a moſt pleaſing conviction of the peaſant's happineſs. In ſome of the cantons each cottage has its little territory, conſiſting generally of a field or two of fine paſture ground, and frequently ſkirted with trees, and well ſupplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in moſt parts of Switzerland. Silk, lace, and ſeveral other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in ſome of the cantons; and even the head-dreſſes of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are alſo ſtrictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loſes above ſix florins, which is about nine ſhillings of our money, incurs a conſiderable fine. Their diverſions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not waſted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leiſure hours in reading. The youth are generally trained to all the martial exerciſes, ſuch as running, wreſtling, throwing the hammer, and ſhooting, both with the croſs-bow and the muſket.

GOITERS AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly in the republic of Vallais, are very much ſubject to *goiters*, or large excreſcences of fleſh that grow from the throat, and often increaſe to a moſt enormous ſize: but what is more extraordinary, idiotiſm alſo remarkably abounds among them. "I ſaw," ſays Mr. Coxe, "many inſtances of both kinds, as I paſſed through Sion: ſome idiots were baſking in the ſun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the moſt affecting ſpectacle of intellectual imbecillity that can poſſibly be conceived. The cauſes which produce a frequency of theſe phenomena in this country, form a very curious queſtion."

The notion that ſnow-water occaſions theſe excreſcences is totally void of foundation. For on that ſuppoſition, why are the natives of thoſe places that lie moſt contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what deſcends immediately from thoſe immenſe reſervoirs of ice and ſnow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of thoſe countries in which there is no ſnow, afflicted with it? For, theſe guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the iſland of Sumatra, and at Patna, and Purnea in the Eaſt Indies, where ſnow is unknown.

The ſprings, that ſupply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly ſimilar to the incruſtations of Matlock in Derbyſhire, ſo minutely diſſolved as not in the leaſt to affect the tranſparency of the water. It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this ſubſtance, thus diſſolved, ſhould introduce themſelves into the glands of the throat and produce goiters, for the following reaſons; becauſe *tuf*, or this calcareous depoſition, abounds in all thoſe diſtricts, where goiters are common. There are goitrous perſons and much *tuf* in Derbyſhire, in various parts of the Vallais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Friburgh, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in ſeveral places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dreſden, in the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the ſtrongeſt proof in favour of this opinion, ſays our author, is derived from the following facts. A ſurgeon, whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf-ſtone* from ſeveral goiters; and that from one in particular, which ſuppurated, he had taken ſeveral flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added, that the ſame ſubſtance is found in the ſtomachs of cows, and in the goitrous tumours, to which even the dogs of the coun-

country are ſubject. He had diminiſhed and cured the goiters of many young perſons by emollient liquors, and external applications; and prevented them in future by removing his patients from the places where the ſprings are impregnated with *tuf*; and, if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the uſe of water which was not purified.

Children are occaſionally born with guttural ſwellings, but this may ariſe from the aliment of the mother. It is to be preſumed, that a people accuſtomed to theſe excreſcences will not be ſhocked at their deformity, but it does not appear as ſome writers aſſert, that they conſider them as beauties. To judge from the accounts of many travellers, it might be ſuppoſed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots or goitrous: whereas in fact, the Valaiſans, in general, are a robuſt race; and all that with truth can be affirmed, is, that goitrous perſons and idiots are more abundant in ſome diſtricts of the Vallais, than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been aſſerted that the people very much reſpect theſe ideots, and even conſider them as *bleſſings from heaven*. The common people, it is certain, eſteem them ſo, for they call them "*Souls of God, without ſin*; and many parents prefer theſe idiot-children to thoſe whoſe underſtandings are perfect; becauſe as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they conſider them as certain of happineſs in a future ſtate. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effect, as it diſpoſes the parents to pay greater attention to ſuch helpleſs beings. Theſe idiots are ſuffered to marry, as well among themſelves as with others *.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thoſe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which ſeem now to have ſubſided, and the two ſects live together in the moſt perfect harmony; an union the more remarkable, when we conſider the fatal quarrels that have been kindled in Switzerland on account of religious tenets. In ſeveral parts of the canton of Glarus, the Proteſtants and Catholics ſucceſſively perform ſervice in the ſame church; and all the offices of ſtate are amicably adminiſtered by the two parties. Zuinglius was the apoſtle of proteſtantiſm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Calvin and Luther only in a few ſpeculative points; ſo that Calviniſm is ſaid to be the religion of the proteſtant Swiſſes. But this muſt be underſtood chiefly with reſpect to the mode of church government; for in ſome doctrinal points they are far from being univerſally Calviniſtical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the intereſt of civil liberty, their ſentiments on the ſubject of religious toleration are in general much leſs liberal.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſſes who border upon France ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whoſe name is ſo well known in all proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rouſſeau too, whoſe works the preſent age have received with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rouſſeau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de la Village* in particular is much eſteemed. M. Bonnet, and Meſſ. de Sauſſure and de Luc, deſerve to be mentioned with applauſe, and will be remembered till the Alps ſhall be no more. The juſtly celebrated Haller, a native of Berne, deſerves the higheſt

* COXE's Travels through Switzerland, vol. i. p. 385, &c.

eulogy

eulogy as a poet, a phyſiologiſt, and a philoſopher, to whom Michaelis, the eminent orientaliſt, juſtly applies an obſervation which had been made on the genius of Ariſtotle; "*Neque cælo, neque terrâ, neque mari quicquam relinquere voluit incognitum, indole præterea adeo mirabili, ut ad ſingula natum præcipue dicas*;" i. e. He left nothing unexplored, either in the heavens, on the earth, or in the ſea, and was of ſuch a wonderful capacity, that he ſeemed born for the object of his purſuit.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſity of Baſil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious phyſic-garden, which contains the choiceſt exotics; and adjoining to the library, which contains ſome valuable manuſcripts, is a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial curioſities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Eraſmus and Amerbach, which alſo belong to this univerſity, there are no leſs than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, repreſenting a dead Chriſt, a thouſand ducats have been offered. The other univerſities, which indeed are commonly only ſtyled colleges, are thoſe of Bern, Lauſanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Every diſtrict of a canton in this mountainous country preſents the traveller with a natural curioſity; ſometimes in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects, interſperſed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, eſpecially one, two leagues from Friburg. This was formed by the hands of a ſingle hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greateſt curioſity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, cieling, all cut out of the rock.

At Shaffhauſen is a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, juſtly admired for the ſingularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already deſtroyed ſeveral ſtone bridges of the ſtrongeſt conſtruction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge, of a ſingle arch, acroſs the river, which is near four hundred feet wide. The magiſtrates, however required that it ſhould conſiſt of two arches, and that he ſhould for that purpoſe employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he has contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is ſupported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as ſafe if formed ſolely of one arch. The ſides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a *hænge-werk*, or hanging bridge; the road, which is almoſt level, is not carried, as uſual, over the top of the arch; but if the expreſſion may be allowed, is let into the middle of it and there ſuſpended. A man of the ſlighteſt weight feels it almoſt tremble under him, yet waggons heavily laden paſs over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles when ſtruck, but ſtill preſerves its firm and equal tenſion. On conſidering the greatneſs of the plan, and the boldneſs of the conſtruction, it is matter of aſtoniſhment that the architect was originally a carpenter, without the leaſt tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not verſed in the theory of mechanics. His name was Ulric Grubenman. The bridge was finiſhed in leſs than three years, and coſt about 8000l. ſterling.

At the famous paſs of the *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a ſolid rock near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch 26, and its breadth 25. The marcaſites, falſe diamonds, and other ſtones, found in theſe mountains, are juſtly ranked among the natural curioſities of the country. The ruins of Cæſar's wall which extended 18 miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Leman are diſcernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus, and at Avanche in the canton of Bern. Switzerland boaſts of many noble religious buildings,

ings, particularly a college of Jeſuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuſcripts, antiques, and curioſities of all kinds. At Lucerne, (ſays Mr. Coxe) is to be ſeen a topographical repreſentation of the moſt mountainous part of Switzerland, by general Pfiffer, a native of this town, and an officer in the French ſervice. It is a model in relief, and well deſerves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finiſhed in 1776, comprized about 60 ſquare leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The compoſition is principally a maſtic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is ſo hard as to be trod upon without receiving the leaſt damage. The whole is painted with different colours, repreſenting the objects as they exiſt in nature. It is worthy of particular obſervation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees are diſtinguiſhed; but alſo that the ſtrata of the ſeveral rocks are marked, each being ſhaped upon the ſpot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous ſtone, or ſuch other natural ſubſtances as compoſe the original mountains. The plan is indeed ſo minutely exact, that it comprizes not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and foreſts; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and even every path is diſtinctly and accurately repreſented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to M. de Sauſſure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the moſt mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a ſublime picture of immenſe Alps piled one upon another: as if the ſtory of the Titans were realized, and they had ſucceeded (at leaſt in one ſpot of the globe) in heaping Oſſa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Oſſa. From the account of this officer it appears, that there are continued chains of mountains of the ſame elevation, riſing in progreſſion to the higheſt range, and from thence gradually deſcending in the ſame proportion to Italy. Near Roſiniere, is a famous ſpring which riſes in the middle of a natural baſon of twelve ſquare feet—the force that acts upon it muſt be prodigious; after a great ſhower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its ſurface. Its temperature never varies, its ſurface is clear as cryſtal, and its depth unfathomable; perhaps it is the end of ſome ſubterraneous lake that hath here found an iſſue for its waters.

Cities.] Of theſe the moſt conſiderable is the city of Bern, ſtanding on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is ſaid, forms almoſt a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occaſion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arſenals, bridges, and public edifices. Baſil is ſituated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alſace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty ſtreets, and ſix market places. The town-houſe, which ſtands on the river Birſec, is ſupported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. This ſituation of Baſil is pleaſing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is conſidered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far leſs conſiderable than Bern, but in the arſenal is ſhewn the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuſcript of excellent letters written by the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I ſhall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an aſſociate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itſelf is an independent ſtate and republic. The city is well built and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated upon the Rhone where it flows from the fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its

its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. By its ſituation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artiſts; ſo that the proteſtants, eſpecially ſuch as are of a liberal turn, eſteem it a moſt delightful place. But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the uſurpation of the ſenate, hath divided the inhabitants into parties, and the late ſtruggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all. Many of its valuable citizens have left the place, and ſought refuge and protection in foreign countries.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, ribbands, ſilk and printed cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws, to fabricate ſilks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progreſs in thoſe manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a proſpect of being able ſoon to make conſiderable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT]. Theſe are very conplicated heads, though belonging to the ſame body, being partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction, but thoſe of Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne, with their dependencies, are ariſtocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Bern excepted. Thoſe of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ariſtocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even thoſe ariſtocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real intereſts of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happineſs not to be expected in deſpotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itſelf to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented on the baſis of affection, a ſyſtem of mutual defence.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are Swiſſes, properly ſo called. The ſecond are the Griſons, or the ſtates, confederated with the Swiſſes, for their common protection. The third are thoſe prefectures, which, though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a little republic; but when any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. It is obſerved by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public are indebted for the beſt account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail among the people. For whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the ſeveral conſtitutions; ſo that even the oligarchichal ſtates (which, of all others are uſually the moſt tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the ſubject is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſumptuary laws, and equal diviſion of their fortunes among their children, ſeem to enſure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the ſame extent of region, ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with ſuch wiſdom was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs, of late years, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that ſince the firm and complete eſtabliſhment of their general confederacy, they have ſcarcely ever had occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and have had no hoſtile commotions among themſelves, that were not very ſoon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that conſtitute the Swiſs confederacy, renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Berne are ſaid to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common ſtock; and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides money in other banks.

The revenues ariſe, 1. From the profits of the demeſne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Cuſtoms and duties on merchandize; 4. The revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons, independent of the militia, conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied, ſo as to benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms; appear on the ſtated days for ſhooting at a mark; furniſh himſelf with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter caſe, the government permits the enliſting volunteers, though only for ſuch ſtates as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, or even to be enliſted without the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

HISTORY.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already mentioned, are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. Their mountainous, uninviting ſituation, formed a better ſecurity for their liberties, than their forts or armies; and the ſame is the caſe at preſent. They continued long under little better than nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with ſo much rigour, that they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of his governors. This ſerved only to double the hardſhips of the people; and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors, Greſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to himſelf. The famous William Tell, being obſerved to paſs frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markſman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Greſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended to his [Greſler's] heart, if he had killed his ſon. Tell was immediately ſent to priſon; but making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swiſſes from the Auſtrian tyranny had been planned by ſome noble patriots among them. Their meaſures were ſo juſt, and their courſe ſo intrepid, that they ſoon effected a union of ſeveral cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppreſſion, ſought firſt an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suiſſe, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent ſucceſſes of their arms againſt Albert, duke of Auſtria, inſenſibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They firſt conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne joined them in 1353; Friburg, and Soleure 130

years after; Basil and Scaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513 completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neufchatel, since the year 1707, hath been under the protection of the king of Prussia, but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swisses, I must refer the reader to the histories of Europe.

SPAIN.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length 700 / Breadth 500	between	10 and 3 east longitude. / 36 and 44 north latitude.	

Boundaries. IT is bounded on the West by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean, on the East; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from France, on the North; and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar, on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Spain.	Castile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID { N. lat. 40-30 W. Lon. 4-15.
	Andalusia	16,500	273	135	Seville.
	Castile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos
	Arragon	13,818	190	105	Saragossa
	Estremadura	12,600	180	123	Badajos
	Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compostella.
	Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon
	Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona
	Granada	8100	200	45	Granada
	Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia.
	Biscay and Ipuscoa	4760	140	55	Bilboa
	Asturia	4600	124	55	Oviedo
	Murcia	3600	87	65	Murcia
	Upper Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampeluna
In the Mediterranean	Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca
	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica
	Minorca. I.	520	41	20	Citadella
	Total —	150,763			

The town and fortress of Gibraltar, subject to Great Britain.

Spain

Spain has alſo been ſubdivided in the following manner:

Title.	Prov.	Subdiviſion.	Title.	Chief towns.	Conſiderable towns.
Kingdom	Galicia	Compoſtella	Archbiſhoprick	Compoſtella	Corunna. Ferrol. Vigo. Betanzo. Rivadavia.
		Mondonedo	Biſhoprick	Mondonedo	
		Lugo	Biſhoprick	Lugo	
		Ortenſe	Biſhoprick	Ortenſe	
		Tuy	Territory	Tuy	
Principality	Aſturia	Aſturia	de Oviedo	Oviedo	Aviles. St. Vincent.
		Aſturia	de Santillana	Santillana	
Lordſhip	Biſcay	Biſcay	Proper	Bilboa	St. Sebaſtian. St. Andero. Laredo
		Guipiſcoa		Tholoſa	
		Alava		Vittoria	
Kingdom	Navarre	Pampeluna	Majorſhip	Pampeluna	
		Olita	Majorſhip	Olita	
		Tudela	Majorſhip	Tudela	
		Eſtella	Majorſhip	Eſtella	
		Sangueſa	Majorſhip	Sangueſa	
Province	Old Caſtile	Burgos	Diſtrict	Burgos	Rea, Aranda, Calzada, and St. Domingo.
		Rioxa	Diſtrict	Logronno	
		Calahorra	Diſtrict	Calahorra	
		Soria	Diſtrict	Soria	
		Oſma	Diſtrict	Oſma	
		Valadolid	Diſtrict	Valadolid	
		Segovia	Diſtrict	Segovia	
		Avila	Diſtrict	Avila	
		Siguenſa	Diſtrict	Siguenſa	
	New Caſtile	N. of the Tajo		Madrid	
		Upon the Tajo		Toledo	
		E. of Toledo		Cuença	
		On the Guadiana		Cividad Real	
		E. of Madrid		Alcala de Henarez	
		Frontiers of Valencia		Almanza	
		N. W. of Madrid		Eſcurial	
		N. E. of Madrid		Guadalaxara	
		N. E. of Madrid		Brihuega	
		La Mancha S.			
		La Sierra E.			
		On the Guadiana		Calatrava	
		Frontiers of Valencia		Villena Requena	

Title.	Prov.	Subdivision.	Title	Chief towns.	Considerable towns.
Kingdom	Arragon	Saragoſſa	Archbiſhoprick	Saragoſſa	Calataiud and Boria.
		Jaca	Biſhoprick	Jaca	
		Hueſca	Biſhoprick	Hueſca	
		Balbaſtro	Biſhoprick	Balbaſtro	
		Taracona	Biſhoprick	Taracona	
		Albaraſin	Biſhoprick	Albaraſin	
		Teruel	Biſhoprick	Teruel	
		Sobarbe	Biſhoprick	Ainſa	
Principality	Catalonia	Barcelona	Diſtrict	Barcelona	Maureſa,
		Urgel	Diſtrict	Urgel	
		Balaguer	Diſtrict	Balaguer	
		Lerida	Diſtrict	Lerida	
		Tortoſa	Diſtrict	Tortoſa	
		Girone	Diſtrict	Girone	
		Tarragona	Diſtrict	Tarragona	
		Lampredan	Diſtrict	Roſes	
		Vich	Diſtrict	Vich	
		Cardonna	Diſtrict	Cardonna	
		Solſonna	Diſtrict	Solſonna	
		Puycerda	Diſtrict	Puycerda	
Kingdom	Valencia	Xucar	Diſtrict	Valencia	Segorbe, Xativa, Alicant, Denia, Gandia, Morviedo, Vilarcal, Alcira, Altea.
		Millaros	Diſtrict	Villa Hermoſa	
		Segura	Diſtrict	Origuela	
Kingdom	Leon	North of the Douro		Leon	
				Palencia, or Placenia	
				Toro	
				Zamora	
				Aſtorgo	
		South of the Douro		Salamanca	
				Alva	
				Cividad Rodrigo	
Province	Eſtremadura	On the Guadiana		Merida	
				Badajox	
		North of the Tajo		Placentia	
				Coria	
		Between Tajo and Guadiana		Truxillo	
		South of the Guadiana		Lenera, or Ellenera	
		On the Tajo		Alcantara	
		On the Guadiana		Medelin	

Title.	Prov.	Subdiviſion.	Title.	Chief towns.	Conſiderable towns.
Kingdom	Murcia	Murcia	Diſtrict	Murcia	Caravaca & Mula
		Lorca	Proper	Lorca	
		Carthagena	Diſtrict	Carthagena	
Kingdom	Granada	Granada	Archbiſhoprick	Granada	Bonda, Antiquera, Baza & Loya
		Malaga	Biſhoprick	Malaga	
		Almeria	Biſhoprick	Almeria	
		Guadix	Biſhoprick	Guadix	
Province	Andaluſia	Seville	Archbiſhoprick	Seville	Cadiz, Gibraltar, St. Mary, Baeza, Oſſuna, St. Lucar, &c.
		Jaen	Biſhoprick	Jaen	
		Corduba	Biſhoprick	Corduba	
		Medina Sidonia	Duchy	Medina Sidonia	

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the names of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country, of whoſe ancient hiſtory, at leaſt the interior part of it, we know leſs than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſively hot in the ſouthern provinces in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts; though thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller ſhiver.

Such is the moiſture of the hills, bounded on the north by the bay of Biſcay, and to the ſouth by ſnowy mountains, that no care is ſufficient to preſerve their fruits, their grain, their inſtruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from ruſt. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progreſs. Beſides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of moſt diſeaſes which infeſt the principality of Aſturia. Yet, although ſubject to ſuch a variety of endemical diſeaſes, few countries can produce more inſtances of longevity: many live to the age of a hundred, ſome to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The ſame obſervation may be extended to Gallicia, where, in the pariſh of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate adminiſtered the ſacrament to thirteen perſons, whoſe ages together made one thouſand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngeſt of theſe being one hundred and ten, and the oldeſt one hundred and twenty-ſeven. But in Villa de Foſinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty-ſix years.

The ſoil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately ſuffered much through their indolence; the cauſes of which I ſhall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs. Her wines, eſpecially ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among foreigners. There are, in the diſtrict of Malaga, (according

to Mr. Townſend, the lateſt traveller) fourteen thouſand vine preſſes, chiefly employed in making the rich wines, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *mountain*; if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of *tent*. Good mountain is ſold from thirteen to ſixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons, according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thouſand veſſels enter this port every year, of which about one-tenth are Spaniſh, and the exports in wine, fruit, oil and fiſh, are computed at about 375,000*l.* per annum; but there have been times when it has been conſiderably more.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains ſuch a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; ſuch are the generous qualities of its ſoil. Even ſugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. A late writer, Uſtariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a moſt curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves. Some of the mountains in Spain are cloathed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to 200,000l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

The waters, of Spain eſpecially thoſe that are medicinal, are little known; but many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have ſuch healing qualities, as are outdone by thoſe of no country in Europe; and the incloſing, and encouraging a reſort to them, becomes daily more prevalent, eſpecially at Alhamar in Granada.

MOUNTAINS.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous: the chief and the higheſt, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France, and the road over the paſs that ſeparates Rouſſillon from Catalonia reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the ſtrength of 30 men to ſupport, and nearly as many oxen to drag up, a carriage, which four horſes now do with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times, one of the Pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains in Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the moſt ſingular in the world, for ſituation, ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte ſerrado, or Mount Scie, words which ſignify a cut, or ſawed mountain; and is ſo called from its ſingular and extraordinary form: for it is ſo broken and divided, and ſo crowned with an infinite number of ſpiring cones, or pine heads, that it ſeems, at a diſtant view, to be the work of man; but upon a nearer approach, appears to be evidently the production of the God of nature. It is a ſpot ſo admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt vow is, never to forſake it.

When the mountain is firſt ſeen at a diſtance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic ſpires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itſelf a mountain, and the whole compoſes an enormous maſs, about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height*. As it is like no other mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any, though not very diſtant from ſome that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our lady of Montſerrat, to which pilgrims reſort from the fartheſt parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the ſick received into the hoſpital. Sometimes, on particular feſtivals, ſeven thouſands perſons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reaſonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for ſaying maſs, water-ciſterns, and moſt of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of theſe little hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the ſacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and after divine ſervice dine together. They meet alſo at this hermitage, on the days of the ſaints to which their ſeveral hermitages are dedicated, to ſay maſs, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very ſolitary and recluſe manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abſtinence, never eating fleſh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, leſt their attention ſhould be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly objects. The number of profeſſed monks there, is 76, of lay-brothers 28, and of ſinging boys 25, beſides phyſician, ſurgeon, and ſervants. Mr. Thickneſſe, who has publiſhed a very particular deſcription of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often ſaw from his habitation the iſlands of Minorca, Majorca, and Ivica, and the kingdoms of Valencia, and Murcia.

RIVERS, LAKES, STRAITS AND CURRENTS. Of rivers the principal are the Duero, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto, in Portugal; the Tajo, or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Liſbon; the Guadiana falls into the ſame ocean near Cape Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean ſea below Tortoſa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, riſes in Sierra Morena, and empties itſelf into the Mediterranean near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it, from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the ſand, and petrifying it in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. If a ſtone happens to fall in, and reſt upon another, they both become in a year's time perfectly united and conglutinated. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the ſame hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fiſh live in its ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general, no animals will drink out of this river, except goats, whoſe fleſh nevertheleſs has an excellent flavour. Theſe ſingular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature: for when it paſſes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean ſea ſix leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, eſpecially that of Beneventa, abound with fiſhes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

* Mr. Swinburne eſtimates its height at only 3,300 feet, and obſerves that the arms of the convent are, the Virgin Mary ſitting at the foot of a rock, half cut through by a ſaw.

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thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt numbers of eccleſiaſtics, of both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given ſeveral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulſion of that people. The preſent inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spaniſh writer, to amount to 9,250,000; ſo that England is three times as populous as Spain, conſidering its extent.

The perſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſtilians; their hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are very expreſſive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of muſtachoes, and to introduce among them the French dreſs, inſtead of their black cloaks, ſhort jerkins, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs, in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it quite, as the ſame ſpirit is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtillian, or Spaniard, who ſees none above him, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendants. This is the true reaſon why many of them are ſo fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior.

Throughout the whole of Spain (ſays Mr. Townſend) I cannot recollect to have ſeen a ſingle country reſidence, like thoſe which every where abound in England: the great nobility ſurround the ſovereign, and are attracted by the court; the nobles of inferior rank or fortune are either aſſembled at Madrid, or eſtabliſh themſelves in the great cities of the diſtant provinces. This deſertion of the country has ariſen, not as in other countries, from the oppreſſions of the great barons, and from the franchiſes enjoyed by cities, but from two other cauſes more extenſive in their operations. The firſt of theſe was the diſtracted condition of the empire till the reign of Ferdinand and Iſabella, divided into ſeparate kingdoms of ſmall extent, all engaged in never-ceaſing wars againſt each other, which drove men of property into the cities; the ſecond was the jealouſy of the court, which ſoon followed the expulſion of the Moors; a jealouſy which for more than a century and an half was merely political, leſt the grandees, ſupported by the people, ſhould endeavour to regain their conſequence. To this fear, at the acceſſion of the preſent family, ſucceeded one of a more alarming nature; from the attachment which many of the great families had diſcovered to the houſe of Auſtria. For this reaſon they were aſſembled round the throne, and kept conſtantly in ſight. In France ſome inhabited caſtles are to be found in every province. But, in this reſpect, no country can be compared to England. If the cauſes were to be aſſigned for this equal diſſemination of wealth, which appears in the delightful manſions of the great, and the ſeats of country gentlemen, ſcattered over the face of the whole iſland; of that which is to be ſeen in all our cities, great towns, and country villages; which meet the eye in every farm-houſe, and which ſhews itſelf in the high ſtate of cultivation, in our agricultural improvements, in the flocks, the herds, and the luxuriant crops with which our fields are covered, the leading cauſe would probably be found in the conſtitution of our government, not merely as ſecuring life, liberty, and property, but as making it neceſſary for the firſt nobility to cultivate their intereſt in the country, if they will extend their influence at court. By reſiding on their own eſtates, they not only ſpend money among their tenants, which by its circu-

circulation, ſets every thing in motion, and becomes productive of new wealth, but their amuſement is to make improvements.

Ridiculous, however, as thier pride is, it is productive of the moſt exalted qualities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years paſt, we know no inſtance of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have done) of confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and plate fleet, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is the more ſurpriſing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his miniſters were far from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs, and fell into their hands, not only by ſupplying them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in the moſt hoſpitable manner while they remained amongſt them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are carefully to diſtinguiſh between the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which are not to be put on the ſame footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any other country. The kings of Spain of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families, as their miniſters. Theſe are generally French or Italians, but moſt commonly the latter, who riſe into power by the moſt infamous arts, and of late times from the moſt abject ſtations. Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, ſince their acceſſion to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt genius among them, embroiled his maſter with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of their Italian miniſters, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppreſſive and unpopular meaſures.

The common people who live on the coaſts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an aſſemblage of Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers, and Engliſh ſmugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards. In time of war, they follow privateering with great ſucceſs; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the Spaniſh ſervice. There are about 40,000 gypſies, who, beſides their trade of fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the ſmall towns and villages.—The character of the Spaniards, is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, after his late travels through the country: "The Catalans appear to be the moſt active ſtirring ſet of men, the beſt calculated for buſineſs, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians a more ſullen, ſedate race, better adapted to the occupations of huſbandmen, leſs eager to change place, and of a much more timid, ſuſpicious caſt of mind than the former. The Andaluſians ſeem to be the greateſt talkers and rhodomontadors of Spain. The Caſtilians have a manly frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Caſtilians are perhaps the leaſt induſtrious of the whole nation: the Old Caſtilians are laborious, and retain more of the ancient ſimplicity of manners; both are of a firm determined ſpirit. The Arragoneſe are a mixture of the Caſtilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more reſembling a colony of republicans than the province of an abſolute monarchy: and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſearch of an hardly earned ſubſiſtence."

The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſtly in their novels and romances; for though it muſt be acknowledged, that Spain produces as fine women as any country

in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their perſons they are commonly ſmall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ vaſt art in ſupplying the defects of nature. If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reaſonably ſuppoſe that thoſe artifices rather diminiſh than increaſe their beauty, eſpecially when they are turned of 25. Their indiſcriminate uſe of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly diſfigures their complexions, and ſhrivels their ſkin. It is at the ſame time univerſally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have ſaid, it is more than probable, that the vaſt pains taken by the government of Spain, may at laſt eradicate thoſe cuſtoms and habits among the Spaniards that ſeem ſo ridiculous to foreigners. They are univerſally known to have refined notions and excellent ſenſe; and this, if improved by ſtudy and travelling, which they now ſtand in great need of, would render them ſuperior to the French themſelves. Their ſlow, deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to ſuch a degree, that during the two laſt wars, they were found to be as quick both in reſolving and executing, if not more ſo than their enemies. Their ſecrecy, conſtancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in ſeveral of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andaluſia, the common people have, for ſome time, affiduouſly applied themſelves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, their ſobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfaſt, as well as ſup in bed; their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, ſalad, and radiſhes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, ſuch as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where generally ſpeaking, the weather is clear and the inhabitants are moſtly in the habit of riſing much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furniſh ſpirits ſufficient to reſiſt the effects of the violent heat through the whole day, without ſome refreſhment; it is therefore the univerſal practice to go to ſleep for ſome hours after dinner, which in thoſe countries is over early, and this time of repoſe, which laſts for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Sieſta*, and in Portugal *the Seſta*. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that you may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are inſipid and ridiculous bombaſt. The prompter's head ſometimes appears through a trap-door above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country and Portugal, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhewing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe encounters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form and weapons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diverſion itſelf, which is attended with circumſtances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

There is ſcarcely a town in Spain but what has a large ſquare for the purpoſe of exhibiting bull-feaſts; and it is ſaid that even the pooreſt inhabitants of the ſmalleſt villages will often club together in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them riding upon aſſes, for want of horſes.

Religion.] The horrors of the Romiſh religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, have been greatly leſſened, by moderating the penalties of the inquiſition, a tribunal diſgraceful to human nature; but though diſuſed, it is not abrogated; only the eccleſiaſtics and their officers can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority: it is ſtill in force againſt the Mooriſh and Jewiſh pretended converts. The Spaniards, however, embrace and practiſe the Roman catholic religion with all its abſurdities; and in this they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of *Moſt Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors above the reſt of the catholic world hath loſt much of its activity, and ſeems nearly extinguiſhed, and the power of the clergy hath been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has alſo been iſſued, to prevent the admiſſion of noviciates into the different convents, without ſpecial permiſſion, which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic orders. It is ſaid, that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 ſecular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people on the interceſſion of ſaints has at all periods been a ſource of conſolation to them, but upon ſome occaſions, has betrayed them into miſchief. Every company of artiſans, and every ſhip that ſails, is under the immediate protection of ſome patron. Beſides folio volumes, which teſtify the innumerable miracles performed by our lady of Montſerrat, every ſubordinate ſhrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of preſumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies of inſurance in the laſt war, having each of them its favourite ſaint, ſuch as San Ramon de Penaforte, la Virgin de la Merced, and others, aſſociated in form by the articles of partnerſhip, and named in every policy of inſurance, and having with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs allotted to them their correſpondent dividend, the ſame as to any other partner, they concluded that with ſuch powerful aſſociates it was not poſſible for them to ſuffer loſs. Under this perſuaſion they ventured, about the year 1779, to inſure the French Weſt-Indiamen at fifty per cent. when the Engliſh and the Dutch had refuſed to do it at any premium; and, indeed, when moſt of the ſhips were already in the Engliſh ports. By this fatal ſtroke all the inſuring companies, except two, were ruined; yet, notwithſtanding this misfortune, this ſuperſtition remains in force.

Archbishopricks and bishopricks.] In Spain there are eight archbiſhopricks and forty-ſix biſhopricks. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtyled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Caſtile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per annum, but the Spaniſh court hath now many ways of leſſening the revenues of the church, as by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, &c. and premiums to the ſocieties of agriculture. This archbiſhoprick pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Eſcurial, beſides other penſions; and it is aſſerted, that there is not a biſhoprick in Spain but hath ſome body or other quartered upon it, and the ſecond-rate benefices are believed to be in the ſame predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends are taken the penſions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to travellers as well as natives: but there is a ſameneſs in them all, except that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.

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The ſums which are given away in charity, by the archbiſhops, biſhops, and convents, from their ample revenues, are immenſe; but the effects of it are moſt deplorable in promoting indolence, poverty, and every ſpecies of wretchedneſs. In traverſing the ſtreets of Seville (ſays Mr. Townſend) I was ſtruck with the multitude of beggars clothed in rags; and was at firſt inclined to attribute this to the decay of trade; but, upon examination, I found a more abiding cauſe in the diſtribution of alms at the archbiſhop's palace, and at the gates of twenty convents, daily, and without diſtinction, to all who make application for relief. Such miſplaced benevolence is a bar to induſtry, and multiplies the objects of diſtreſs, whoſe numbers bear exact proportion to the proviſion made for their ſupport. This is the caſe not in one, but in every place, where beggars abound, for by the miſtaken benevolence of the biſhop, of the canons, and of the convents, in diſtributing alms to all who aſk, there is ſuch ample proviſion made for lazineſs, that every ſtreet ſwarms with vagabonds, not merely with thoſe who are proper objects of compaſſion, but with wretches, who, if compelled to work, would be found abundantly able to maintain themſelves. What incitement can there be here to induſtry? Hence it comes to paſs, that wherever theſe indiſcriminate charities abound, few traces of it are to be ſeen, whilſt filth and naſtineſs, immorality and vice, wretchedneſs and poverty, the inevitable conſequences of undiſtinguiſhing benevolence, prevail. How evident it is from hence, that he who finds employment for the poor is their greateſt friend; whilſt he who indiſcriminately feeds them, ſhould be ranked amongſt their enemies.

LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It is at preſent a moſt majeſtic and expreſſive language: and it is remarkable, that foreigners who underſtand it the beſt, prize it the moſt. It makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlations; and Cervantes ſpeaks almoſt as awkward Engliſh as Shakeſpeare does French. It may, however, be conſidered as a ſtandard tongue, having retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoſter runs thus; *Padre nueſtro, que eſtas en el cielo, ſanctificado ſe el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hagaſe tu voluntad, aſſien la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia das nos le oy; y perdna nos nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros perdonamos a nueſtros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in ſome meaſure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which prevents them from making that progreſs in the polite arts which they otherwiſe would: but the greateſt impediment to literature in Spain, is the deſpotic nature of its government. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewiſe produced ſome excellent phyſicians. Such was the gloom of the Auſtrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V. that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Madrid, in 1549, liſted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he loſt his left hand. His ſatire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſervice to his country by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in priſon for debt when he compoſed the firſt part of this hiſtory, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous ſatiriſts.

The viſions of Quevedo, and ſome other of his humorous and ſatirical pieces, having been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the beſt writers of his age, excelling equally in verſe and in proſe. Beſides his merit as a poet, he was well verſed in the oriental languages, and poſſeſſed great erudition. His works are compriſed in three volumes, 4to. two of which conſiſt of poetry, and the third of pieces in proſe. As a poet he excelled both in the ſerious and burleſque ſtyle, and was happy in a turn of humour ſimilar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had ſettled themſelves in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental ſtyle of poetry very generally prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards had addicted themſelves much to Roman literature: but Alvaro of Cordova complains, that in his time, the Spaniards had ſo totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult, even amongſt a thouſand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter. The attachment of many of the inhabitants of Spain to oriental literature was then ſo great, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compoſe verſes with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themſelves. About this time the Spaniſh Jews made a conſiderable figure in literature, which was promoted by maſters from Babylon, where they had academies ſupported by themſelves. In the year 967, Rabbi Moſes, and his ſon Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were ſold as ſlaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethren, who eſtabliſhed a ſchool in that city, of which Rabbi Moſes was appointed the head: that learned Jew was, however, deſirous of returning back to his own country; but the Mooriſh king of Cordova would not give his conſent, rejoicing that his Hebrew ſubjects had maſters of their own religion at home, without being under the neceſſity of receiving them from a foreign univerſity, and every indulgence was granted them with reſpect to their worſhip. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college, over which he had preſided, was transferred to Cordova, from whence a number of Hebrew poets iſſued forth, who have been noticed by various learned writers. The Spaniſh Jews had alſo flouriſhing ſchools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo, and from hence aroſe the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of ſpeech, that have crept into the Caſtilian language, and form a conſpicuous part of its phraſeology. To theſe Jews the Spaniſh language is indebted for a curious verſion of the Hebrew books of the Old Teſtament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic-Spaniſh letter.

The Spaniſh writers alſo boaſt of their Troubadours as high as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work the *Arte de la Gaya Sciencia*, which comprehends a ſyſtem of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, beſides deſcribing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions. That nobleman was alſo the author of a tranſlation of the Æneid of Virgil into Spaniſh verſe. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was alſo much celebrated as a poet in his own time: his poems have paſſed through a variety of editions, the firſt of which was printed at Saragoſſa in 1515. Juan de la Encina was alſo a poet of conſiderable merit; he tranſlated ſome of the Latin poems into Spaniſh, and publiſhed a piece on the art of poetry, and other works, which were printed at Saragoſſa in 1516. Boſcan, Ercilla, Villegas, and other Spaniſh poets, alſo obtained great reputation in their own country. But the moſt diſtinguiſhed dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakſpeare. He poſſeſſed an imagination aſtoniſhingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his

his dramatic works he diſregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taſte of the age than to the rules of criticiſm. His lyric compoſitions, and fugitive pieces, with his proſe eſſays, form a collection of fifty volumes, beſides his dramatic works, which make twenty-ſix volumes more; excluſive of four hundred ſcriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was alſo a dramatic writer of conſiderable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Toſtatus, a divine, the moſt voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their bulk. Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly De Solis, have ſhewn great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen. Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay great ingenuity, very extenſive reading and uncommon liberality of ſentiment, eſpecially when his ſituation and country are conſidered. Many of his pieces have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in four volumes, 8vo. Don Franciſco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a diſſertation on the Phœnician language, may be placed in the firſt line of Spaniſh literati. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, ſome of whom are amuſing and inſtructive. Should the Spaniards diſengage themſelves from their abſtracted metaphyſical turn of thinking, and from their preſent tyrannical form of government, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature. At preſent, it ſeems, that the common education of an Engliſh gentleman would conſtitute a man of learning in Spain, and ſhould he underſtand Greek, he would be quite a phænomenon.

Some of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects; Palomino, in an elaborate treatiſe on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inſerted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and ſculptors, who flouriſhed in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic, to the concluſion of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Among the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were Velaſques, Murillo, who is commonly called the Spaniſh Vandyke, Ribeira and Glaudio Coello, whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to that of Paul Veroneſe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent. Many of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be educated here. The reſt are, Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valadolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley, between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of 159 arches. It reaches about 140 yards, and where it croſſes the valley it is ſomething more than 94 feet high. Its ſolidity, which has braved upwards of ſixteen centuries, ſeems inexplicable on cloſely obſerving the ſimplicity of its conſtruction. It is compoſed of ſquare ſtones, placed one upon another, without any exterior appearance of cement, though we cannot now be certain whether they were really united without this aid, by being cut and placed with peculiar art, or whether the cement has been deſtroyed by time. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different

parts

parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneouſly, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat ſtones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, ſaid to be one of the greateſt curioſities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height: the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is ſupported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven ailes, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had exiſted 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, ſaid to have been raiſed by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almoſt entire, well proportioned, and ſimple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn ſtone. Near Morviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) deſtroyed by Hannibal, are ſome Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact ſemicircle about 82 yards diameter, ſome of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 perſons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Mooriſh antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the moſt entire, as well as the moſt ſtately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the ſecond Mooriſh king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It is built of yellow ſtone; the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and ninety feet. The inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jaſper, on the pedeſtals of which are repreſentations of battles, in marble baſſo relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a maſs of many houſes and towers, walled round, and built of large ſtones of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls and cielings, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt, and covered with various Arabic ſentences. Here are ſeveral baths, the walls, floor, and cieling of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, ſituated on a more elevated ſtation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the fineſt proſpects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loſs of Granada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain; ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy lakes, form a principal part; but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and afterwards emerges. The royal cabinet of natural hiſtory at Madrid was opened to the public by his majeſty's orders in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatneſs and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, beſides being ſhewn privately to ſtrangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious ſtones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beaſts at preſent

is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spaniſh American colonies. Here is alſo a curious collection of vaſes, baſons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the fineſt agates, amethyſts, rock cryſtals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, ſet with cameos, intaglios, &c. in an elegant taſte, and of very fine workmanſhip, ſaid to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet alſo contains ſpecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of ſtalactitæ, of a whitiſh colour, compoſed of ſeveral coats or cruſts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increaſe in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the ſummit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be ſeen, but the bay, the ſtraits, the towns of St. Roque and Algeſiras, and the Alpuxarra mountains, mount Abyla on the African ſhore, with its ſnowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coaſt.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well paved and lighted, and ſome of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome. The houſes of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for ſhew, conveniency being little conſidered: thus you will paſs through uſually two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end, where the family ſit. The houſes in general look more like priſons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows, beſides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions; but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor newſpaper, except the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city; it is a ſpacious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a very fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience chamber eſpecially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimſon velvet richly embroidered with gold; ornamented alſo with 12 looking-glaſſes made at St. Ildefonſo, each 10 feet high, with 12 tables of the fineſt Spaniſh marbles. The other royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting-ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues. The chief of thoſe palaces are the Buen Retiro (now ſtripped of all its beſt pictures and furniture), Caſa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonſo.

A late traveller has repreſented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park many leagues round, cut acroſs in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of thoſe alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreaſt, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a ſtream of water. Between thoſe alleys there are thick

thick groves of ſmaller trees of various kinds, and thouſands of deer and wild boars wander at large, beſides numberleſs hares, rabbits, pheaſants, partridges, and other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly ſurrounded by the garden, and is adorned with fountains and ſtatues; it alſo contains a vaſt variety of the moſt beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itſelf, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaiſtered, and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two ſtories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a ſuite. The gardens are on a ſlope, on the top of which is a great reſervoir of water, called here *El Mar*, the ſea, which ſupplies the fountains: this reſervoir is furniſhed from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far ſurpaſs thoſe at Verſailles. The great entry of the palace is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of Verſailles, and with a large iron palliſade. In the gardens are twenty-ſeven fountains: the baſons are of white marble, and the ſtatues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. Theſe gardens are in the formal French ſtyle, but ornamented with ſixty-one very fine marble ſtatues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vaſes, and twenty leaden vaſes gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique ſtatues, buſts, and baſſo relievos. The expence laid out in this palace and gardens was immenſe; but when we conſider, ſays Mr. Townſend, that the whole of the garden was a barren rock, that the very ſoil is brought from a great diſtance, and that water is conveyed to every tree; when we reflect upon the quantity of lead uſed for the images, and of caſt iron for the pipes, with the expence of workmanſhip for both, together with all the other elegancies, correſponding to ſuch an undertaking, we ſhall not wonder to hear that this place coſt forty-five millions of piaſtres, or, in Engliſh money, near ſix millions and an half.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial; and the natives ſay, perhaps, with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any other palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a fizeable quarto volume, and it is ſaid, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it ſix millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the weſt front, and in the eaſt 366, and the apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, tapeſtry, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems, and other curious ſtones. This building, beſides its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thouſand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuſcripts with which it is enriched. Above the ſhelves are paintings in freſco by Barthelemi Carducho, the ſubjects of which are taken from ſacred or profane hiſtory, or have relation to the ſciences of which the ſhelves below preſent to us the elements. Thus the council of Nice is repreſented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes at the ſiege of Syracuſe, indicates thoſe which relate to mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very ſingular circumſtance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, ſo that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reaſon for this cuſtom is, that Arias Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the ſixteenth century, whoſe library had ſerved as a foundation for that of the Eſcurial, had all his books placed and inſcribed in that manner, which no doubt ap-

peared to him to be the moſt commodious method of arranging them; that he had introduced his own method into the Eſcurial, and ſince his time, and for the ſake of uniformity, it had been followed with reſpect to the books afterwards added. Here are alſo large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics, noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000l. The mauſoleum, or burying-place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 36 feet diameter, incruſted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums beſtowed on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, vaſes, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſcovers a bad taſte. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on ſuch an utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through its principal ornaments, upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and ſacerdotal habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſteleſs bigot, ſuch as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king reſides forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long ſquare of 640 feet by 580. The height to the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his ſucceſſors; but its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſide is compoſed of different ſtructures, ſome of which are maſter-pieces of architecture, but forming a diſagreeable whole. It muſt however be confeſſed, that the pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion there, are excellent in their kind, and ſome of them ſcarcely to be equalled even in Italy itſelf.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, without the ſtraits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the Engliſh, in their wars with Spain, becauſe of the vaſt intereſt our merchants have in the treaſures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The ſtreets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houſes lofty with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the ſea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finiſhed. The environs are exceedingly beautiful.

Cordova is now an inconſiderable place; ſtreets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conſpicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquiſition and of the biſhops are extenſive and well ſituated. The cathedral was formerly a moſque, divided into ſeventeen ailes by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the ſilver candleſticks coſt 850l. a-piece. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 3500l. per ann. but as the biſhops cannot deviſe by will, all they die poſſeſſed of eſcheates to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largeſt city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The ſhape is circular, and the walls ſeem of Mooriſh conſtruction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The ſuburb of Triana is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic caſtle, where, in 1481, the inquiſition was firſt eſtabliſhed in Spain. Its manu-

manufactures in wool and ſilk, which formerly amounted to 76,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spaniſh America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious ſteeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This ſteeple is reckoned one of the greateſt curioſities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London, but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York-miniter for lightneſs, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The firſt clock made in the kingdom was ſet up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the preſence of king Henry III. The proſpect of the country round this city, beheld from the ſteeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, ſaid to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houſes, is ſituated in the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt place in Spain; the houſes are lofty and plain, and the ſtreets well lighted and paved. The citadel is ſtrong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the ſiege they ſuſtained in 1714 againſt a formidable army, when deſerted both by England and the Emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to be nearly 150,000, and they ſupply Spain with moſt of the clothing and arms for the troops. A ſingular cuſtom prevails among them on the firſt of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from houſe to houſe to eat cheſnuts, believing that for every cheſnut they ſwallow, with proper faith and unction, they ſhall deliver a ſoul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almoſt circular city, with lofty walls. The ſtreets are crooked and narrow, and not paved, the houſes ill built and filthy, and moſt of the churches tawdry. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of every dreſs ſwarm in this city, whoſe inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbiſhoprick is one of the beſt in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l. ſterling a year.

Carthagena is a large city, but very few good ſtreets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arſenal is a ſpacious ſquare ſouth-weſt of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the ſea. When Mr. Swinburne viſited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spaniſh criminals, and 600 Barbary ſlaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were ſent there, deſerved indeed exemplary puniſhments.

Granada ſtands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double ſummit between two rivers, the Dauro and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are paſſed away with its old inhabitants; the ſtreets are now filthy, and the aqueducts crumbled to duſt, and its trade loſt. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are employed in labour, the ſurplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre, for bull-feaſts, is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain, and the environs of the city are ſtill pleaſing and healthful.

Bilboa is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with a large ſquare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river, where there are great numbers of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect, particularly in ſailing up the river: for, beſides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landſcape, and completes the ſcenery. The houſes are ſolid and lofty, and the ſtreets well paved and level; and the water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be waſhed at pleaſure; which renders Bilboa one of the neateſt towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not leſs remarkable for its opulence and extenſive commerce than for the luxuriance of its ſoil, yielding in great abundance the moſt delicious fruits; whilſt its rugged mountains afford thoſe luſcious grapes, which give ſuch reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall, ſtrengthened by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. A Mooriſh caſtle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The ſtreets are narrow, and the moſt remarkable building in it is a ſtupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. ſaid to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The biſhop's income is 16,000. ſterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the ſame number of nunneries. The moſt beautiful part of this city is the great ſquare, built about forty years ago. The houſes are of three ſtories, and all of equal height and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare, which extends two hundred and ninety-three feet on each ſide. Over ſome of the arches are medallions, with buſts of the kings of Spain, and of ſeveral eminent men, in ſtone baſſo-relievo, among which are thoſe of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the moſt ancient cities in Spain, and during ſeveral centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees ſtripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almoſt entirely deſerted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part ſpent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thouſands that are left, and aſſiſts, in ſome degree, thoſe ſmall manufactures of ſword-blades and ſilk-ſtuffs that are eſtabliſhed in this city. It is now exceedingly ill-built, poor, and mean, and the ſtreets very ſteep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Caſtile, but now in obſcurity. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures of the Gothic kind in Europe: its form is exactly the ſame as that of York minſter, and on the eaſt end is an octagon building exactly like the chapter-houſe at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortreſs of Andaluſia, is at preſent in poſſeſſion of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in the year 711, or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival a fortreſs was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibel Tarif*, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, under the command of ſir George Rooke, in 1704; and this rather through accident than any thing elſe. The prince of Heſſe, with 1800 men, landed on the iſthmus, but an attack on that ſide was found to be impracticable on account of the ſteepneſs of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 ſhot without making any impreſſion on the works, ſo that the fortreſs ſeems to be equally impregnable both to the Britiſh and Spaniards, except by famine. At laſt, a party of ſailors, having got merry with grog, rowed cloſe under the New Mole in their boats, and as they ſaw that the garriſon, who conſiſted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mount-

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ed the mole, hoiſted a red jacket as a ſignal of poſſeſſion. This being immediately obſerved from the fleet, more boats and ſailors were ſent out, who, in like manner, having aſcended the works, got poſſeſſion of a battery, and ſoon obliged the town to ſurrender. After many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated endeavours have been ſince made to wreſt it from England, but without ſucceſs: the laſt war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France by land and ſea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garriſon, to the great loſs and diſgrace of the aſſailants: though it muſt be granted, the place is by nature almoſt impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly braſs, which were ſunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raiſed, and ſold, to be diſtributed among the garriſon. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the paſſage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant ſeas. But the road is neither ſafe againſt an enemy nor ſtorms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The ſtraits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which ſets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the laſt ſiege was totally deſtroyed by the enemies' bombs, but, on account of its fortifications, is eſteemed the key of Spain, and is always furniſhed with a garriſon well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is acceſſible on the land ſide only by a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and ſo incloſed by high ſteep hills, as to be almoſt inacceſſible that way. It has but two gates on that ſide, and as many towards the ſea. Acroſs this iſthmus, the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garriſon of Gibraltar from having any intercourſe with the country behind them: notwithſtanding which they carry on a clandeſtine trade, particularly in tobacco. The garriſon is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces ſcarcely any thing, all their proviſions are brought them either from England, or from Ceuta, on the oppoſite coaſt of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that ſyſtem being productive of abuſes, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magiſtrates.

The chief iſlands belonging to Spain in Europe, are thoſe of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica. Minorca was taken by the Engliſh, under general Stanhope, in 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but it was retaken by the Spaniards in the laſt war, on February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, ſigned at Paris, September 3, 1783. Thus, it is now become a Spaniſh iſland again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

Notwithſtanding the pride and oſtentation of the Spaniards, their penury is eaſily diſcernible, but their wants are few, and their appetites eaſily ſatisfied. The inferior orders, even in the greateſt cities, are miſerably lodged, and thoſe lodgings wretchedly furniſhed. Many of the poorer ſort, both men and women, wear neither ſhoes nor ſtockings, and coarſe bread ſteeped in oil, and occaſionally ſeaſoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country people through ſeveral provinces. A traveller in Spain muſt carry proviſions and bedding with him, and if perchance he meets with the appearance of an inn, he muſt even cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform theſe offices to ſtrangers; but lately ſome tolerable inns have been opened by Iriſh and Frenchmen in cities, and upon the high roads. The pride, indolence, and lazineſs of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their more induſtrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; and here a wonderful contraſt diſtinguiſhes the cha-

nafter of two neighbouring nations. The Spaniard ſeldom ſtirs from home, or puts his hand to work of any kind. He ſleeps, goes to maſs, takes his evening walk, while the induſtrious Frenchman becomes a thorough domeſtic; he is butcher, cook, and taylor, all in the ſame family; he powders the hair, cuts the corns, wipes the ſhoes, and, after making himſelf uſeful in a thouſand different ſhapes, he returns to his native country loaded with dollars, and laughs out the remainder of his days at the expence of his proud benefactor.

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In the city of Valencia there is a very reſpectable ſilk manufacture, in which five thouſand looms, and three hundred ſtocking-frames, give employment to upwards of twenty thouſand of the inhabitants, without enumerating thoſe who exerciſe profeſſions relative to the manufacture, ſuch as perſons who prepare the wood and iron work of ſo great a number of machines, or ſpin, wind, or dye the ſilk.—At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been ſucceſſfully eſtabliſhed; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their beſt apartments are floored with theſe, and are remarkable for neatneſs, for coolneſs, and for elegance. They are ſtronger and much more beautiful than thoſe of Holland.

At Carthagena, they make great quantities of the *eſparto* ropes and cables, ſome of them ſpun like hemp, and others platted. Both operations are performed with ſingular rapidity. Theſe cables are excellent, becauſe they float on the ſurface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coaſt. The eſparto ruſh makes good matts for houſes, *alpargates* or ſhort trowſers and buſkins for peaſants, and latterly it has been ſpun into fine thread for the purpoſe of making cloth. If properly encouraged, there is no doubt that the manufacture may be brought to ſuch perfection, as to make this once uſeleſs ruſh a ſource of abundant wealth to the ſouthern provinces of Spain, for it is the peculiar and natural production of all the high and uncultivated mountains in the ſouth.

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pean nation: but I ſhall have occaſion to touch on this ſubject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country is in a great degree the reſult of its government, in the adminiſtration of which no proper attention is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned, whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The cortes of Spain, which formerly, eſpecially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileges than the parliament of England, are now aboliſhed, but ſome faint remains of their conſtitution are ſtill diſcernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king.

The privy-council, which is compoſed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to prepare matters, and to digeſt papers for the cabinet-council or junta, which conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named by the king, and in them reſides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cogniſance of military affairs only. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom. The ſeveral courts of the royal audiences, are thoſe of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona. Theſe judge primarily in all cauſes within 15 miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe, there are many ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem apart, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, and twenty-two counſellors, beſides officers. Their deciſion is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys and magiſtrates who have ſerved in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, that they are ſeldom truſted to one perſon for more than three years; and their emoluments are ſufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, beſides thoſe in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſulquivir, on the coaſt of Barbary in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Aſia.

REVENUES.] The revenues ariſing to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000l. ſterling, ſome writers ſay eight; and they form the ſureſt ſupport of his government. His American income, it is true, is immenſe, but it is generally embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the ſilver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in caſe of a war, or any public emergency, to ſequeſter great part of the American treaſures belonging to his ſubjects, who never complain, becauſe they are always punctually repaid with intereſt. The finances of his preſent catholic majeſty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himſelf and his people, than thoſe of any of his predeceſſors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues ariſe, they are various, arbitrary, and ſo much dependant on emergencies, that they cannot be accurately aſcertained. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions; the clergy and military orders are likewiſe taxed.

MILI-

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but, in caſe of war they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His late catholic majeſty was at great care and expence to raiſe a powerful marine; and the Spaniſh fleet in Europe and America at preſent exceeds 70 ſhips of the line. All along the coaſts of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, ſo that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be ſoon alarmed in caſe of an invaſion.

Nature, which has ſo liberally beſtowed on Spain all the neceſſaries and luxuries of life, and has ſcarcely refuſed that kingdom any of the enjoyments that peace permits to be taſted, has been equally laviſh in beſtowing all the materials of which war compoſes the means of deſtruction; ſhe has given iron in abundance, copper, lead, and ſaltpetre, ſo that this country need not be indebted to any other to ſupply its artillery with theſe deſtructive treaſures. Spain alſo (ſays M. de Bourgoanne) poſſeſſes within herſelf every thing neceſſary to her navy, and after having long neglected theſe benefactions of nature, ſhe now makes ſucceſsful efforts to render it independent of other nations.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all which, with ſeveral others, were by name entered into the royal titles, ſo that they amounted in all to about 32. This abſurd cuſtom is ſtill occaſionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majeſty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a ſword, without being crowned. Their ſignature never mentions their name, but, I THE KING. The king's eldeſt ſon is called prince of Aſturias, and his younger children, of both ſexes, are by way of diſtinction called infants, or infantas, that is, children.

The armorial bearings of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a ſhield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermoſt on the right hand and the loweſt on the left contain a caſtle, or, with three towers, for Caſtile: and in the uppermoſt on the left, and the loweſt on the right, are the three lions gules for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for thoſe Spaniſh nobility and gentry, who are unmixed with the Mooriſh blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may ſtand covered before the king, and are treated with princely diſtinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbiſhops, ambaſſadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and ſtate, have the privilege as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The order of the "*Golden Fleece*," particularly deſcribed before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and ſovereign dukes; but the Spaniſh branch of it hath many French and Italian nobility: there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The order of "*St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compoſtella*, is the richeſt of all the orders of Spain. Some attribute its inſtitution to Remira, king of Leon, in the year 837, and others to later princes, as an encouragement to valour in the long wars between the Chriſtians and Moors. They were divided into two branches, each under a grand-maſter, but the office of both were given by Pope Alexander VI. to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-maſter in their reſpective dominions. The badge is a croſs of gold enamelled crimſon, edged with gold, and worn round

the neck, pendent to a broad ribband; it is charged on the center with an eſcalop-ſhell white. The order is highly eſteemed in Spain, and only conferred on perſons of noble families. The ſame may be ſaid of the order of "*Calatrava*," firſt inſtituted by Sanchio, king of Toledo: it took its name from the caſtle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and poſſeſſions were ſo conſiderable as to excite the jealouſy of the crown, to which at length their revenues and the office of grand maſter were annexed by pope Innocent VIII. Their badge is, a croſs fleury, red, worn at the breaſt, pendent to a broad ribband, the whole differing only in colour from the badge of Alcantara: the ceremonial mantle is of white ſilk, tied with a cordon and taſſels, like thoſe of the Garter, and on the left arm a croſs fleury embroidered, gules. The celebrated order of "*Alcantara*" derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief ſeat of the order, they aſſumed the name of Knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aſide the old device of a pear-tree. They were ſubject to the order of Calatrava, till the year 1411, when, by the ſanction of the pope, they became independent. They choſe their own grand-maſter, and acquired vaſt poſſeſſions: but, in 1495, pope Alexander VI. conferred the office on king Ferdinand of Arragon, and annexed it unalienably to the Spaniſh crown. Since that time the kings of Spain have enjoyed the revenues of the grand-maſter, and the commanderies, belonging to the order. The badge is a gold croſs, fleury, enamelled green, and worn pendent to a broad ribband on the breaſt. On days of ceremony, they wear a mantle of red ſilk, on the left ſide of which is embroidered, in ſilver, a ſtar of five points. This order is highly eſteemed, and conferred only on perſons of ancient and illuſtrious families.

The order of the "*Lady of Mercy*," is ſaid to have been inſtituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was deſigned for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which they expended large ſums of money. It was at firſt confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it: the badge, which is common to both, is a ſhield per feſs, red and gold; in chief a croſs pattee, white; in baſeé four pallets red, for Arragon, and the ſhield crowned with a ducal coronet. This order poſſeſſes conſiderable revenues in Spain. The order of "*Monteſa*," was inſtituted at Valencia, at the cloſe of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their poſſeſſions. Their chief ſeat being the town of Monteſa, the order from thence derived its name, and choſe St. George for patron. About a century afterwards, it was united to the order of St. George of Alfama, by pope Benedict XIII. and ſo hath continued ever ſince. The badge is a plain red croſs enamelled on gold, worn pendent to a broad red ribband, ſaſh-wiſe, and a plain red croſs embroidered on the left breaſt of the outer garment. In the year 1771, the late king inſtituted, after his own name, the order of "*Charles III.*" in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is, a ſtar of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the croſs is the image of the Virgin Mary, veſtments white and blue. On the reverſe, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti & Merito*. The order is compoſed of four claſſes; the firſt claſs are ſtyled Grand Croſſes, and wear the badge pendent to a ribband, ſtriped blue and white, over the right ſhoulder, and have a ſtar of ſilver, with the badge embroidered on the left ſide of the coat. The knights of the ſecond claſs wear the badge and ribband like the firſt, but have no ſtar. The third and and fourth claſſes wear the badge in the button-hole of the coat, pendent to a narrow ſtriped ribband. The knights of the third claſs have

penſions

penſions on the revenues of the order. None but perſons of noble deſcent can belong to this order.

History of Spain.] Spain was probably firſt peopled by the Celtæ, from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſions of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom among them, but in the year 584, the Goths again became the maſters. Theſe in their turn were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the ſeventh century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Perſian, Macedonian, and Roman empires, croſſed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in the ſoutherly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spaniſh prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe Infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania), and he took the title of king of Aſturia about the year 720. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal were for many ages perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were ſuperior to all their cotemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line kept poſſeſſion of the throne near 300 years. Learning flouriſhed in Spain, while the reſt of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Mooriſh princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief miniſters proud and inſolent. A ſeries of civil wars continued, which at laſt overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent ſovereign. Now, every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at laſt divided into 12 or 14 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon Alphonſo threw off the dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms of Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella the heireſs, and afterwards queen of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews, who would not be converts to the Chriſtian faith, to the number of 170,000 families.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the Popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and the emperor of Germany, ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella, in the year 1516. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his

own proteſtant ſubjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He alſo reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At laſt, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a reſolution that filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment, the withdrawing himſelf entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude *.

Agreeably to this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the preſence of his principal nobility, to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which dignity they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches; Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch; whilſt the Empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they ſtill poſſeſs.

* Charles, of all his vaſt poſſeſſions, reſerved nothing for himſelf but an annual penſion of 100,000 crowns; and choſe for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a ſmall brook, and ſurrounded by riſing grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave ſtrict orders, that the ſtyle of the building which he erected there, ſhould be ſuch as ſuited his preſent ſituation rather than his former dignity. It conſiſted only of ſix rooms, four of them in the form of friars cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet ſquare, were hung with brown cloth, and furniſhed in the moſt ſimple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one ſide into a garden, of which Charles himſelf had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he propoſed to cultivate with his own hands. After ſpending ſome time in the city of Ghent in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he ſet out for Zealand in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his ſon, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an effectionate and laſt farewel of Philip and his attendants, he ſet out, on the 17th of September 1556, under convoy of a large fleet of Spaniſh, Flemiſh, and Engliſh ſhips. As ſoon as he landed in Spain, he fell proſtrate on the ground; and conſidering himſelf now as dead to the world, he kiſſed the earth, and ſaid, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spaniſh nobility paid their court to him as he paſſed along to the place of his retreat; but they were ſo few in number, and their attendance was ſo negligent, that Charles obſerved it, and felt, for the firſt time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his ſon's ingratitude; who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain ſome weeks on the road, before he paid him the firſt moiety of that ſmall portion, which was all that he had reſerved of ſo many kingdoms. At laſt the money was paid; and Charles having diſmiſſed a great number of his domeſtics, whoſe attendance he thought would be ſuperfluous, he entered into his humble retreat with twelve domeſtics only. Here he buried in ſolitude, and ſilence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all thoſe vaſt projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe; filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being ſubjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete ſatisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political tranſactions of the princes of Europe, he reſtrained his curioſity even from any enquiry concerning them; and he ſeemed to view the buſy ſcene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference ariſing from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleaſing reflection of having diſengaged himſelf from its cares.

New amuſements and new objects now occupied his mind; ſometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; ſometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horſe, the only one that he kept, attended by a ſingle ſervant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who reſided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himſelf in ſtudying the principles, and in forming curious works of, mechaniſm, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the conſtruction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is ſaid, with a mixture of ſurpriſe and regret, on his own folly, in having beſtowed ſo much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a preciſe uniformity of ſentiment concerning the intricate and myſterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years retirement, he was ſeized with a fever, which carried him off, in the 59th year of his age.

Philip

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf, his unſucceſsful addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment and unfortunate wars with that princeſs, his tyranny and perſecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned, in the hiſtory of thoſe countries.

In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian, about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal aſſerted a prior right. By this acquiſition Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds.

The deſcendents of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne; and ever ſince, Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne by virtue of his predeceſſor's will, in the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the concluſion of the war by the ſhameful peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a maſterly train of politics (for in his wars to ſupport his grandſon, as we have already obſerved, he was almoſt ruined), accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his ſon Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their ſovereign, through the oppreſſion of the Imperialiſts.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. a mild and pacific prince, who reformed many abuſes, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and proſperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without iſſue, through melancholy for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, late king of Spain, ſon to Philip V. by his wife, the princeſs of Parma.

He was ſo warmly attached to the family compact of the houſe of Bourbon, that two years after his acceſſion, he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh plate fleets. Notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of the Engliſh, their miniſtry thought proper haſtily to conclude a peace, in conſequence of which the Havannah was reſtored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted againſt Algiers by the Spaniſh miniſtry, which had a moſt

unſucceſsful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eaſtward of the city of Algiers; but were diſgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take ſhelter on board their ſhips, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783, and 1784, they renewed their attacks againſt Algiers by ſea, but after ſpending much ammunition, and loſing many lives, were forced to retire without doing that place much injury.

When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was alſo prevailed upon to commence hoſtilities againſt Great Britain. In particular, the Spaniards, in 1779, began their firſt operations, by cloſely beſieging Gibraltar, both by ſea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortreſs ſhould be poſſeſſed by the Engliſh.

The ſiege was continued throughout the war with occaſional fierce attacks on both ſides, though what the garriſon had chiefly to dread was famine, and ſo ſoon did this begin to make its appearance, that about the middle of January, 1780, not only bread, but every article neceſſary to the ſupport of life, was hard to be procured, and only to be purchaſed at exorbitant prices. Captain Drinkwater, in his moſt intereſting hiſtory of this ſiege, informs us that veal, mutton, and beef, ſold from two ſhillings and ſixpence, to four ſhillings per pound; freſh pork from two to three ſhillings; ſalt beef and pork, one ſhilling and three pence per pound; fowls, eighteen ſhillings per couple; ducks, a guinea; and other articles in proportion. And though they were frequently relieved, yet the ſame difficulties very frequently returned. However, the garriſon ſtill held out; and though the Spaniſh army and train of artillery continued daily to increaſe, the utmoſt efforts of their power ſeemed to be inſufficient to make the leaſt impreſſion on this impregnable fortreſs. So little regard indeed was paid to the formidable preparations of the Spaniards, that even from the beginning of the ſiege, it had been cuſtomary with general Elliot, the governor, to allow them to bring their works to perfection and then to demoliſh them. The more frequently the beſiegers were diſappointed, the more eager they ſeemed to accompliſh their point. The moſt prodigious number of cannon, mortars, and all other deſtructive engines of that kind, that perhaps ever were aſſembled in any one enterpriſe, were now brought before a ſingle fortreſs, without being able to make the leaſt impreſſion upon it. By the violence of their fire, indeed, the houſes were reduced to ruins, and the inhabitants were obliged to remove to England; but the fortifications of the place were ſcarce ever damaged in the leaſt. The ſoldiers were ſo much accuſtomed to ſhells falling and burſting near them, that they became in a manner inſenſible of danger; and their officers were frequently obliged to call to them to avoid them, when juſt ready to burſt at their feet. Our hiſtorian gives many inſtances of their deſtructive power, particularly in a wounded matroſs, when a ſhell from the mortar-boats fell into the ward of the hoſpital, and rebounding fell upon the bed where he lay. The convaleſcents and ſick, in the ſame room, inſtantly ſummoned up ſtrength to crawl out on hands and knees, whilſt the fuſe was burning, but this wretched victim was kept down by the weight of the ſhell, which after ſome ſeconds burſt, took off both his legs, and ſcorched him in a dreadful manner; he ſurvived for ſome time, and only regretted that he had not been killed on the batteries. What was more ſurpriſing, though the ſhells, by reaſon of their fiery train, were viſible in the air, and from the length of way they had to go, might have been avoided, the ſight of them was attended with a kind of faſcination in the beholder, ſo as to deprive him of motion, of which ſeveral inſtances are related. Amidſt this dreadful ſcene there were two boys who proved of ſingular

gular uſe to the garriſon, the acuteneſs of their ſight being ſuch that they could trace the ſhot directly from the mouth of the cannon, and thus give warning to the ſoldiers of their danger.

But the grand attack was on the 13th of September 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by 10 battering ſhips, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 braſs guns entirely new, and diſcharging ſhot of 26 pounds weight. The ſhowers of ſhot and ſhells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garriſon, exhibited a ſcene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furniſh a competent idea. It is ſufficient to ſay, that *four hundred pieces* of the heavieſt artillery were playing at the ſame moment; an inſtance which has ſcarcely occurred in any ſiege ſince the invention of thoſe wonderful engines of deſtruction.

The irreſiſtible impreſſion of the red-hot balls, which were ſent from the garriſon in ſuch numbers, and in ſuch directions, was ſoon conſpicuous; for in the afternoon ſmoke was perceived to iſſue from the admiral's ſhip and another; and by one in the morning ſeveral were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ſhips as ſignals of diſtreſs. To reſcue from the flames thoſe who were now incapable of acting as enemies, could not be done without the greateſt hazard, by reaſon of the blowing up of the ſhips, and the previous diſcharge of the guns as the fire reached them. Yet, in defiance of every danger, brigadier Curtis diſtinguiſhed himſelf in an eminent manner in this humane undertaking, and with 12 gun-boats ſaved 9 officers, 2 prieſts, and 334 men, all Spaniards, beſides 1 officer, and 11 Frenchmen, who had floated in the preceding evening.

Thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortreſs of Gibraltar. But great as was the bravery of the Britiſh garriſon, which deſerves every encomium, the ſmall numbers of the killed and wounded are alone ſufficient to ſhew that they muſt have been aſſiſted by very ſtrong fortifications, or it was impoſſible that any ſkill whatever could have reſiſted ſuch a tremendous power. Some trifling operations continued on the ſide of the Spaniards till the reſtoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterpriſes, however, the Spaniards proved more ſucceſsful. The iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to them on the 6th of February 1782, after having been beſieged for 171 days. The garriſon conſiſted of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spaniſh commander at firſt attempted to corrupt the gover nor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the ſiege was commenced in form; and the garriſon would have ſhewed themſelves equally invincible with thoſe of Gibraltar, had it been poſſible to relieve them in the ſame manner. The ſcurvy ſoon made its appearance, and reduced them to ſuch a deplorable ſituation, that they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender, in ſpite of every effort of human fortitude or ſkill; and ſo ſenſible were both parties that this was the true cauſe, that the Spaniſh general allowed them to march out with their arms ſhouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the diſconſolate Britiſh ſoldiers proteſted that they ſurrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

His late catholic majeſty uſed much pains to oblige his ſubjects to deſiſt from their ancient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours ſo far, that it occaſioned an inſurrection at Madrid, and obliged him to part with his miniſter, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an inſtance of the neceſſity that even deſpotic princes are under, of paying ſome attention to the inclinations of their ſubjects.

Charles III. late king of Spain, was born in 1716, ſucceeded to the throne in 1759, and died November 13, 1788. He was ſucceeded by his ſecond ſon, Charles Anthony, prince of Aſturias; the eldeſt, who died in 1775, having been declared incapable of inheriting the crown, through an invincible weakneſs of underſtanding.

Charles IV. preſent king of Spain, was born November 11, 1748, was married

September 4, 1765, to princeſs Louiſa of Parma, born December 9, 1751; and has had iſſue ſix children.

PORTUGAL.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300	between	37 and 42 north lat.
Breadth 100		7 and 10 weſt long.

Boundaries.] It is bounded by Spain on the North and Eaſt, and on the South and Weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

Ancient names and divisions.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It moſt probably is derived from ſome noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for ſo ſtrangers are called in the Celtic) reſorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and ſouthern provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
The Northern Diviſion contains	Entre Minho	Braga	6814
	Douro and	Oporto and Viana	
	Tralos Montes	Miranda and Villa Real.	
The Middle Diviſion contains	Beira	Coimbra	12640
		Guarda Caſtel Rodigro	
		Liſbon 38-42 N. lat. 8-53 W. lon.	
	Eſtremadura	St. Ubes and Leira.	
The Southern Diviſion contains	Entre Tajo	Ebora, or Evora	8397
	Guadiana	Portalegre, Elvas, Beja	
	Alentejo	Lagos	
	Algarva	Faro, Tavora, and Silves.	

Soil, air, and productions.] The ſoil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the ſame as in Spain, but not ſo highly flavoured. The Portugueſe wines, when old and genuine, are eſteemed to be very friendly to the conſtitution, and ſafe to drink *. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill-ſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre, near Liſbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, eſpecially about Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients; it is not ſo ſearching as that of Spain, being refreſhed by the ſea breezes.

Mountains.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are thoſe which divide Algarva from Alentejo; thoſe of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Liſbon, at the mouth of the Tagus, or, according to its lateſt name, Tajo.

Water and rivers.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portugueſe rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic Ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden ſand.

* The port-wines are made in the diſtrict round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is conſumed under that name in the Britiſh dominions only. The merchants in that city haye very ſpacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is ſaid that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

Portugal contains ſeveral roaring lakes and ſprings; ſome of them are abſorbent even of the lighteſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and feathers; ſome, particularly one about 45 miles from Liſbon, are medicinal and ſanative; and ſome hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province, of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Eſpithel, at the ſouth entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the ſouth-weſt point of Algarva. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are ſure, and ſerviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horſes, though ſlight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a ſurvey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3344 pariſhes and 1,742,230 lay perſons (which is but 522 laity to each pariſh on a medium), beſides about 300,000 eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes.

The modern Portugueſe retain nothing of that adventurous enterpriſing ſpirit that rendered their forefathers ſo illuſtrious 300 years ago. Ever ſince their conqueſt by Spain, they have degenerated in all their virtues; though ſome noble exceptions are ſtill remaining among them, and no people are ſo little obliged as the Portugueſe are to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of diſobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the ſource of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate paſſion for revenge. They are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more ſtate than the Spaniards themſelves. Among the lower people, thieving is often practiſed; and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in their dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers. It is hard, however, to ſay, what alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueſe, by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, and the diminution of the papal influence among them, but above all, by that ſpirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the intereſt of their own country, is now ſo much encouraged by their court and miniſtry.

The Portugueſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, whoſe habits and cuſtoms they imitate, the nobility however affecting to be more gaily and richly dreſſed. The characteriſtical diſtinction between the Spaniards and Portugueſe, is thus deſcribed by Mr. Coſtigan, "In Spain the *(Hidalgo)* nobleman is what he ought to be; brave, ſincere, and liberal, both in his ſentiments and actions—in this country he is perfectly the reverſe. As you deſcend among the Spaniards, the national character vitiates, and it is well known the Spaniſh peaſant is a proud, beggarly, inſolent, brutal animal—in this country (Portugal) the lower you deſcend in rank, the perſonal character riſes and improves upon you; and you will hardly meet with a peaſant who is not courteous and affable to a degree hardly to be found in any other country." The Portugueſe ladies are thin and ſmall of ſtature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, and their features generally regular. They are eſteemed generous, modeſt, and witty. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much awkwardneſs and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their huſbands to exact from their ſervants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they

an incredible number of domeſtics, as they ſeldom diſcharge any who ſurvive, after ſerving their anceſtors. The poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, ſit always croſs-legged on the ground.

The Portugueſe peaſant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vaſt countries the kings of Portugal poſſeſſed in Africa, and the Eaſt, or of thoſe ſtill remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purſe can reach it, he purchaſes a dried Newfoundland cod-fiſh; but this is a regale he dares ſeldom aſpire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a ſalted pilchard, or a head of garlick, to give that bread a flavour, compoſe his ſtanding diſh; and if he can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf he himſelf fattens, to regale his wretched family at Chriſtmas or Eaſter, he has reached the pinnacle of happineſs in this world; and indeed, whatever he poſſeſſed beyond this habitual penury, according to the preſent ſtate and exertions of his intellects, would be quickly taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his numberleſs ghoſtly comforters, with which his country ſwarms, to look forward for eaſe and happineſs to another ſtate of exiſtence, to which they are themſelves the infallible guides and conductors.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is popery in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueſe have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate of that country: what is certain is, that the royal revenues are greatly increaſed, at the expence of the religious inſtitutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate-trap for the benefit of the crown.

The baneful influence of their religion is, however, too obvious; for, ſays a late traveller, this little country preſents a ſtriking inſtance how far the human mind and character may be depraved and corrupted, by the unhappy effects of a domineering and fictitious mode of worſhip, which has almoſt ſuppreſſed every ſentiment of virtue. Here the practice and exerciſe of thoſe diſpoſitions of piety, gratitude, generoſity, benevolence, and univerſal charity, which would often ariſe naturally in the breaſts of moſt men, if only left to themſelves, are diverted, and another and moſt pernicious direction is given to their effects. The ardour of the pious and devout is directed to adore, at the ſhrine of the ſaint in the neighbourhood, moſt famous for having performed ſome wretched miracle, too ridiculous to detain even the attention of an old woman, or an infant; and it is here alſo where generoſity and gratitude are taught to leave their preſents and make their offerings. The firſt and great object of charity, all over this country and Spain, is the relieving of the ſouls in purgatory, by laviſhing money on churches and convents for maſſes to be ſaid on that account: and ſuch an influence has the belief of that ideal place of torment, that it will ſqueeze hard caſh from between the fingers of many a miſer, when no other conſideration could have produced that effect; nay, ſo depraved are the underſtandings of the beſt intentioned people, by the perverſe leſſons of their ſpiritual directors, that their charitable donations to people in diſtreſs are unaccompanied with thoſe liberal and diſintereſted motives of relieving the neceſſitous and comforting the afflicted, which are the beſt ſtimulatives to ſuch actions, and are diveſted of much of their excellency, by being beſtowed from perſonal and ſelfiſh conſiderations. As the interceſſions of others, eſpecially of perſons who have once addreſs enough to be looked on by the multitude as of extraordinary ſanctity, are reckoned of the greateſt avail; ſo wherever ſuch a perſon or perſons appear, they are

frequented by thoſe whoſe conſciences accuſe them of any deadly ſins, who load ſuch devotees with alms and charitable gifts, charging them at the ſame time to intercede earneſtly in their favour with the Virgin, or with their particular ſaint or angel, to repreſent the charities they have done, and to requeſt that, in conſideration of theſe, ſo much may be diſcounted from the degree of puniſhment their ſins may be found to deſerve, eſtabliſhing by this means a ſort of account current of debtor and creditor, between themſelves and the Almighty, or his agents. And ſo univerſal is this notion among the people, that when they give charity to a common beggar in the ſtreets, they charge that beggar to pray for them, that ſuch charity may be admitted in diſcount of their tranſgreſſions, and which you may believe the beggar faithfully engages to do.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond two; and the laſt ten, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueſe language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Pater-noſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos Ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyno, ſeia feita a tua votade, aſſi nos Ceos, commo na terra. O paoneſſa de cadadia, dano lo oei neſtro dia. E perdoa nos ſenhor, as noſſas dividas, aſſi como nos perdo amos a nos noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir om tentatio, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Theſe are ſo few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Portugueſe themſelves, who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable ſtate of ignorance. It is univerſally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than any European nation, about the middle of the ſixteenth century, and for ſome time after. Camoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and which had fifty profeſſors; but it has been lately put under ſome new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Liſbon, where the young nobility have an opportunity (of which few of them profit) of being educated in every branch of polite learning, and the ſciences. All the books that did belong to the baniſhed Jeſuits are kept here, which compoſe a very large library. The Engliſh language is likewiſe taught in this college. Here is alſo a college where young gentlemen are educated in the ſcience of engineering, and when qualified get commiſſions in that corps.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of theſe. The remains of ſome caſtles in the Mooriſh taſte are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santareen are ſaid to be of Roman work likewiſe. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpreſſibly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world; the paintings are Moſaic work, ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders. To theſe curioſities we may add, that the king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt, though not the moſt valuable diamond, in the world. It was found in Braſil.

CHIEF CITIES.] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which alſo ſet the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints-day, 1755. It ſtill contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its ſituation (riſing from the Tagus in the form of a creſcent) renders its appearance at once delightful and ſuperb, and it is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, which could make however but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. All that part of the city that was demoliſhed by the earthquake, is planned out in the moſt regular and commodious form. Some large ſquares and many ſtreets are already built. The ſtreets form right angles, and are broad and ſpacious. The houſes are lofty, elegant and uniform; and being built of white ſtone, make a beautiful appearance. The ſecond city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops in the city are coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtreet to tranſact buſineſs; and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths hung acroſs from the oppoſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families reſide here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] With regard to agriculture, this country is in a moſt wretched ſtate, producing grain for only three months conſumption, which renders corn the moſt conſiderabe article of importation. Notwithſtanding this is the caſe, it is to be aſcribed to the baneful influence which a deſpotic government has upon the ſpirit of a people, for ſuch is the natural fertility of the ſoil of this country, that there is one province alone capable of producing double the quantity of wheat neceſſary to ſupply the whole nation yearly.

The Portugueſe exchange their wine, ſalt, fruits, and moſt of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and ſome coarſe ſilk and woollen, with a variety of ſtraw work, and are excellent in preſerving and candying fruits. The commerce of Portugal, though ſeemingly extenſive, proves of little ſolid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engroſs all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, ſugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red-wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Braſil; her ivory, ebony, ſpices, and drugs of Africa and Eaſt India, in exchange for the almoſt numberleſs manufactures, and the vaſt quantities of corn and ſalt fiſh, ſupplied by thoſe European nations, and by the Engliſh North American colonies.

The Portugueſe foreign ſettlements are, however, not only of immenſe value, but vaſtly improveable: Braſil, the iſles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, and likewiſe ſlaves for manufacturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil and their South American ſettlements.

What the value of theſe may be, is unknown, perhaps, to themſelves; but they certainly abound in all the precious ſtones, and rich mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spaniſh dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold ſent from Braſil amounts annually to 300,000l. ſterling, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade. The little ſhipping the Portugueſe have is chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave trade; and in a correſpondence with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, and their other poſſeſſions there, as Dieu, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is abſolute; but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearance of its ancient free conſtitution, in the meeting

ing of the cortes or ſtates, conſiſting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of new taxes, but the only real power they have is, that their aſſent is neceſſary in every new regulation, with regard to the ſucceſſion. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future diſputes on that account.

The nature of this government may be fairly pronounced the moſt deſpotic of any kingdom in Europe. The eſtabliſhed law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the ſupplementary mandates of the ſovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purpoſes of ſafety and protection, which law is calculated to extend equally over all the ſubjects.

Here the people have no more ſhare in the direction of government, in enacting of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in that of Ruſſia, or China. The far greater part know nothing of what is done in that reſpect. Every man has no other alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerns himſelf, to the decrees and laws of the deſpot, as promulgated from time to time by his ſecretaries of ſtate. How would an Engliſhman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law publiſhed here! and which runs thus, "*I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleaſure, and of my full, ſupreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do in conſequence order and command*, &c. &c."

All great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in the council of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals; but the Caſa da Supplicaçao is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half ſterling annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported are exceſſive, and farmed out; but if the Portugueſe miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their projects, and in eſtabliſhing excluſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandiſe pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are ſold is 10 per cent. The king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits, and other religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueſe government uſed to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet: but the ſame friendly connection between Great Britain and Portugal does not at preſent ſubſiſt. In the late reign, though they received the moſt effectual aſſiſtance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his moſt faithful majeſty judged it expedient to raiſe a conſiderable body of troops, who were chiefly diſciplined by foreign officers. Since that period the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the diſcipline of the troops; ſo that the military force of Portugal is now again inconſiderable, amounting, it is ſaid, to

25,000

25,000 men. The naval force of this kingdom is about ſeventeen ſhips of war, including ſix frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, king of Portugal and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. The laſt king was complimented by the pope, with the title of His Moſt Faithful Majeſty. That of his eldeſt ſon is prince of Braſil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed ſaltier-wiſe, and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch. The ſupporters are two winged dragons, and the creſt a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the firſt flower-de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the ſecond patee, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it is frequently theſe words, *Pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The titles and diſtinctions of their nobility are much the ſame with thoſe of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Avis*, or *Aviez*, firſt inſtituted by Alphonſus Henriquez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was ſubject to the order of Calatrava in Spain, but when Don John of Portugal ſeized the crown, he made it again independent. The badge is a croſs fleury, enamelled green, and between each angle a fleur-de-lis, gold: it is worne pendent to a green ribbon round the neck. 2. The "Order of St. *James*," inſtituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, becauſe under that ſaint's protection he became victorious over the Moors; he endowed the order with great privileges. The knights profeſs chaſtity, hoſpitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their enſign is a red ſword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of *Chriſt*," was inſtituted in 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to aſſiſt him more powerfully againſt the Moors. The knights obtained great poſſeſſions, and elected their grand maſter, till 1522, when Pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his ſucceſſors to the crown of Portugal. This order is under the ſame regulations, and enjoys the ſame privileges as that of Calatrava in Spain: the badge is a croſs pattée, red, charged with a croſs, white, worne pendent to a broad ſcarlet ribbon round the neck, and on days of ceremony to a collar compoſed of three chains of gold. By the ſtatutes, the knights ſhould prove the nobility of their deſcent for four generations, but the order is now indiſcriminately given to all kinds of people who profeſs the Roman Catholic religion, and is very little regarded. Theſe orders have ſmall commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in ſmall eſteem. The "Order of *Malta*" hath likewiſe 23 commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.] This kingdom comprehends the greateſt part of the ancient Luſitania, and ſhared the ſame fate with the other Spaniſh provinces in the conteſts between the Carthaginians and Romans; and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, was ſucceſſively conquered by the Suevi, Alans, Viſigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonſus VI. king of Caſtile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandſon of Robert king of France, for his bravery and aſſiſtance againſt the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Chriſtians. Henry was ſucceeded by his ſon Alphonſus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a deciſive victory over five Mooriſh kings, in July 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonſus was then proclaimed king by his ſoldiers. He reigned 45 years, and was eſteemed for his courage

rage and love of learning. His deſcendants maintained themſelves on the throne for ſome centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice in the year 1240.

Dennis I. or Dionyſius, was called the *Father of his Country*; he built and rebuilt 44 cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Chriſt, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned 46 years. Under his ſucceſſor Alphonſus IV. happened ſeveral earthquakes at Liſbon, which threw down part of the city, and deſtroyed many lives. John I. was illuſtrious for his courage, prudence, and conqueſts in Africa; under him Madeira was firſt diſcovered in the year 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and after a reign of 49 years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonſo V. about 1480, the Portugueſe diſcovered the coaſt of Guinea; and in the reign of his ſucceſſor John II. they diſcovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and ſettled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the Eaſt Indies. Emanuel, ſurnamed the Great, ſucceeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predeceſſors, fitting out fleets for new diſcoveries. Vaſco de Gama, under him, cruiſed along the coaſt of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indoſtan; and in the year 1500 Alvarez diſcovered Braſil.

John III. ſucceeded in 1521, and while he loſt ſome of his African ſettlements, made new acquiſitions in the Indies. He ſent the famous Xavier, as a miſſionary to Japan, and in the height of his zeal, eſtabliſhed that infernal tribunal, the inquiſition in Portugal, anno 1526, againſt the entreaties and remonſtrances of his people. Sebaſtian, his grandſon, ſucceeded him in 1557, and undertook a cruſade againſt the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either ſlain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebaſtian, being the ſon of Emanuel, ſucceeded, but died without iſſue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony, prior of Crato, was choſen king, by the ſtates of the kingdom, but Philip II. of Spain, as has been obſerved in our hiſtory of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, becauſe his mother was the eldeſt daughter of the grandmother of the princes of Braganza, and ſent the duke of Alva, with a powerful force, who ſubdued the country, and proclaimed his maſter king of Portugal, the 12th of September, 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two ſucceſſors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved towards the Portugueſe with great rapacity and violence. The Spaniſh miniſters treated them as vaſſals of Spain, and by their repeated acts of oppreſſion and tyranny, they ſo kindled the hatred and courage of the Portugueſe, as to produce a revolt at Liſbon, the 1ſt of December, 1640. The people obliged John duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he ſucceeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almoſt without bloodſhed, and the foreign ſettlements alſo acknowledged him as their ſovereign. A fierce war ſubſiſted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to reunite them proved vain, ſo that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain, to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but

obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the great battle of Almanza, in 1707. John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, whoſe reign was neither happy to himſelf, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and ſhook his kingdom to the centre. His ſucceeding adminiſtration was not diſtinguiſhed by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it ſuſtained abroad. It was deeply ſtained with domeſtic blood, and rendered odious by exceſſive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life, in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belem. The families of Aveira, and Tavora, were deſtroyed by torture, in conſequence of an accuſation exhibited againſt them of having conſpired againſt the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence, and their innocence has been ſince publicly and authentically declared. From this ſuppoſed conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the Jeſuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions.

The abolition of the order of the Jeſuits, being one of the moſt important events which have hitherto occurred in the eighteenth centry, and it having originated in the court of Portugal, deſerves ſome notice in this place. The active genius of this order, which penetrated the remoteſt countries of Aſia, at a very early period of the preceding century, directed their attention to the extenſive continent of America, as a proper object of their miſſions. Conducted by their diſtinguiſhed leader, St. Francis Xavier, they formed a conſiderable ſettlement in the province of Paraguay, and made a rapid progreſs in inſtructing the Indians in arts, religion, and the more ſimple manufactures, and accuſtoming them to the bleſſings of ſecurity and order. A few Jeſuits preſided over many thouſand Indians; they ſoon, however, altered their views, and directed them altogether to the increaſe of the opulence and power of their order. Immenſe quantities of gold were annually tranſported to Europe; and in the deſign of ſecuring to themſelves an independent empire in theſe regions, they induſtriouſly cut off all communication with both the Spaniards and the Portugueſe in the adjacent provinces, and inſpired the Indians with the moſt determined oppoſition to thoſe nations. Such was the ſtate of affairs, when, in the year 1750, a treaty was concluded between the courts of Liſbon and Madrid, which aſcertained the limits of their reſpective dominions in South America. Such a treaty was death to the projects of the Jeſuits, and the conſequence was a violent conteſt between the united forces of the two European powers, and the Indians of Paraguay, incited by the Jeſuits. The crafty and vindictive marquis of Pombal, who had raiſed himſelf from performing the duties of a common ſoldier, in the character of a cadet, to be abſolute miniſter of the kingdom of Portugal, could not eaſily forget this refractory conduct; and perhaps he might apprehend the downfall of his own authority, unleſs ſome deciſive check was given to the growing influence of this dangerous ſociety. Whether there was a foundation or not for the report of the conſpiracy againſt the life of the king, or whether the diſcontented Jeſuits were really concerned with the unfortunate noblemen, who ſuffered on that account, or not, is difficult to determine. It was ſufficient that it afforded

a ſpecious pretence for this expert, but unprincipled ſtateſman, to rid himſelf of enemies, whom he could not regard in any other than a formidable light. In the beginning of the year 1759, therefore, the Jeſuits of all deſcriptions were baniſhed the kingdom of Portugal, on the plea that certain of their order were concerned in the attempt upon the life of the king in 1758, and their effects were confiſcated. The hoſtilities which commenced, not long after, between Portugal and Spain, ſerved a little to protract the exiſtence of the Jeſuits in the latter kingdom; the jealouſy, however, which their conduct had excited in the court of Madrid, lay dormant only for a while, and when a fit opportunity preſented, no nation in Europe was more clamorous for their abolition.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his faithful majeſty into their alliance, and to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in conſideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe.

Be that as it will, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice, and favours of a ſimilar kind often performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who had been often ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions, and frivolous pretences, have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portugueſe majeſty having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter, the preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her majeſty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal, an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppreſſive nature of his adminiſtrarion, though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted ſundry public meaſures, which were calculated to promote the real intereſts of Portugal.

Maria-Frances-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro, who was born 1717, by whom ſhe has iſſue:

1. Joſeph-Francis-Xavier, prince of Braſil, born in 1761, married in 1777 to his aunt Mary-Franciſca-Benedicta, born 1746.
2. Infant John-Maria-Joſeph, 1767.
3. Infanta Maria-Anna-Victoria, 1768.
4. Infanta Maria-Clementina, 1774.

obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the great battle of Almanza, in 1707. John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, whoſe reign was neither happy to himſelf, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and ſhook his kingdom to the centre. His ſucceeding adminiſtration was not diſtinguiſhed by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it ſuſtained abroad. It was deeply ſtained with domeſtic blood, and rendered odious by exceſſive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life, in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belem. The families of Aveira, and Tavora, were deſtroyed by torture, in conſequence of an accuſation exhibited againſt them of having conſpired againſt the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence, and their innocence has been ſince publicly and authentically declared. From this ſuppoſed conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the Jeſuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions.

The abolition of the order of the Jeſuits, being one of the moſt important events which have hitherto occurred in the eighteenth centry, and it having originated in the court of Portugal, deſerves ſome notice in this place. The active genius of this order, which penetrated the remoteſt countries of Aſia, at a very early period of the preceding century, directed their attention to the extenſive continent of America, as a proper object of their miſſions. Conducted by their diſtinguiſhed leader, St. Francis Xavier, they formed a conſiderable ſettlement in the province of Paraguay, and made a rapid progreſs in inſtructing the Indians in arts, religion, and the more ſimple manufactures, and accuſtoming them to the bleſſings of ſecurity and order. A few Jeſuits preſided over many thouſand Indians; they ſoon, however, altered their views, and directed them altogether to the increaſe of the opulence and power of their order. Immenſe quantities of gold were annually tranſported to Europe; and in the deſign of ſecuring to themſelves an independent empire in theſe regions, they induſtriouſly cut off all communication with both the Spaniards and the Portugueſe in the adjacent provinces, and inſpired the Indians with the moſt determined oppoſition to thoſe nations. Such was the ſtate of affairs, when, in the year 1750, a treaty was concluded between the courts of Liſbon and Madrid, which aſcertained the limits of their reſpective dominions in South America. Such a treaty was death to the projects of the Jeſuits, and the conſequence was a violent conteſt between the united forces of the two European powers, and the Indians of Paraguay, incited by the Jeſuits. The crafty and vindictive marquis of Pombal, who had raiſed himſelf from performing the duties of a common ſoldier, in the character of a cadet, to be abſolute miniſter of the kingdom of Portugal, could not eaſily forget this refractory conduct; and perhaps he might apprehend the downfall of his own authority, unleſs ſome deciſive check was given to the growing influence of this dangerous ſociety. Whether there was a foundation or not for the report of the conſpiracy againſt the life of the king, or whether the diſcontented Jeſuits were really concerned with the unfortunate noblemen, who ſuffered on that account, or not, is difficult to determine. It was ſufficient that it afforded

a ſpecious pretence for this expert, but unprincipled ſtateſman, to rid himſelf of enemies, whom he could not regard in any other than a formidable light. In the beginning of the year 1759, therefore, the Jeſuits of all deſcriptions were baniſhed the kingdom of Portugal, on the plea that certain of their order were concerned in the attempt upon the life of the king in 1758, and their effects were confiſcated. The hoſtilities which commenced, not long after, between Portugal and Spain, ſerved a little to protract the exiſtence of the Jeſuits in the latter kingdom; the jealouſy, however, which their conduct had excited in the court of Madrid, lay dormant only for a while, and when a fit opportunity preſented, no nation in Europe was more clamorous for their abolition.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies the French, pretended to force his faithful majeſty into their alliance, and to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in conſideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe.

Be that as it will, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice, and favours of a ſimilar kind often performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who had been often ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions, and frivolous pretences, have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portugueſe majeſty having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter, the preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her majeſty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal, an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppreſſive nature of his adminiſtration, though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted ſundry public meaſures, which were calculated to promote the real intereſts of Portugal.

Maria-Frances-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro, who was born 1717, by whom ſhe has iſſue:

1. Joſeph-Francis-Xavier, prince of Braſil, born in 1761, married in 1777 to his aunt Mary-Franciſca-Benedicta, born 1746.
2. Infant John-Maria-Joſeph, 1767.
3. Infanta Maria-Anna-Victoria, 1768.
4. Infanta Maria-Clementina, 1774.

ITALY.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 600	between	38 and 47 north latitude.
Breadth 400		7 and 19 east longitude.

THE form of Italy renders it very difficult to aſcertain its extent and dimenſions; for, according to ſome accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to thoſe of the dominions of the ſtates of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about 400 miles, though in ſome parts it is ſcarcely 100.

Boundaries.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the Eaſt it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic ſea; on the South and Weſt by the Mediterranean ſea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are divided and exhibited in the following table.

Italy	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Papiſts. To the king of Sardinia	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Turin
	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chambery
	Montferrat	446	40	22	Caſal
	Aleſſandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliari
To the king of Naples	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples
	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo
To the Emperor	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	Rome { N. Lat. 41-54. E. Lon. 12-45.
To their reſpective princes	Tuſcany	6640	115	94	Florence
	Maſſa	82	16	11	Maſſa
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma
	Modena	1560	65	39	Modena
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republics	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca
	St. Marino	8			St, Marino
	Genoa	2400	160	25	Genoa
To France	Corſica I.	2520	90	38	Baſtia
To the republic of Venice	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice
	Iſtria P.	1245	6	32	Capo d'Iſtria
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara
	Iſles of Dalmatia	1364			
Iſlands in the Venetian dominions	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura
	Little Cephalonia Ithaca olim	14	7	3	
	Total—	75,056			

SUBDIVISIONS.

The King of SARDINIA poſſeſſes PIEDMONT, SAVOY, MONTSERRAT, the ISLAND of SARDINIA, part of the MILANESE, and of GENOA.

The ſubdiviſions in theſe territories are,

	Subdiviſion.	Titles.	Chief Towns.
Piedmont	Piedmont	Proper	Turin, Pignerol, Carignan
	Verceil	Lordſhip	Verceil
	Maſſeran	Principality	Maſſeran
	Ivrea	Marquiſate	Ivrea
	Aſti	County	Aſti
	Suſa	Marquiſate	Suſa
	Saluzzo	Marquiſate	Saluzzo, Coni
	Vaudois	Vallies	Pragelas, or Cluſon
	Nice	Territory	Nice
	Tende	County	Tende
	Aouſte	County	Aouſte
Savoy	Savoy	Proper	Chambery, Montmelian
	Geneva	County	Annacy
	Chablais	County	Tonor, or Thonon
	Tarantaiſe		Mouſtriers
	Maurienne	Valley	St. John de Maurienne
	Foſſigny		Bonneville
Mont-ſerrat	Montſerrat	Duchy	Caſal, Albi, Aquì
Milaneſe	Tortoneſe		Tortona
	Aleſſandrine		Alexandria
	Laumelin		Laumello
Genoa	Oneglia	Territory	Oneglia

The dominions of the King of NAPLES.

Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Lavora	Naples, Capua, Gaeta	Ult. Calabria	Reggio
		Ult. Abruzzo	Aquila
Ultra Princip.	Benevento	Citra Abruzzo	Chieti
Citra Princip.	Salerno	Capitinate, or Apulia	Manfredonia
			Lucera
Moliſe	Bojano	Bari	Bari
Baſilicata	Cerenza	Otranto	Otranto
Citra Calabria	Coſenza		Brundiſi
			Tarenta

Subdi-

	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Iſland of Sicily	Val de Mazara	Palermo
	Val de Demona	Meſſina
	Val de Noto	Catania, Syracuſe, Noto.

LIPARI ISLANDS, North of SICILY.
Lipari, Strombulo, Rotte, Panaria, Elicuſa.
ISLANDS on the WEST COAST of ITALY.
Capri, Iſchia, Ponza, Pianoſa, &c.

The Houſe of AUSTRIA poſſeſſes the MILANESE, the MANTUAN, and TUSCANY.

The ſubdiviſions and chief towns in theſe territories are,

	Subdiviſions.	Titles.	Chief Towns.
Milaneſe	Milaneſe	Proper	Milan
	Paveſan		Pavia
	Navareſe		Navara
	Comaſco		Como
	Lodeſan		Lodi
	Cremoneſe		Cremona
Tuſcany	Florentina		Florence
	Sienneſe		Sienna
	Piſa		Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino
Mantuan	Mantua	Proper	Mantua

In Tuſcany is contained the republic of Lucca, and the principality of Maſſa Carara, ſubject to its own prince; alſo the coaſt del Preſidii, of which the capital is Orbitello, ſubject to the king of Naples.

The duke of PARMA (of the Houſe of BOURBON) is Sovereign of the Duchies of

Parma	Chief Towns,	Parma
Placentia		Placentia
Guaſtalla		Guaſtalla, Caſtiglione, Luzzara.

The ſubdiviſions of the Genoeſe territories, with their chief towns, are,

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Genoa,	Proper	Genoa	St. Remo, Territory	St. Remo
Savona,	Territory	Savona	Ventimiglia, Territory	Ventimiglia
Vado,	Territory	Vado	Monaco, Principality	Monaco
Noli,	Territory	Noli	Rapallo, Territory	Rapallo
Final	Territory	Final	Lavigna	Lavigna
Albenga,	Territory	Albenga	Specia	Specia
Oneglia,	to Sardinia	Oneglia		

The

The Duchy of MODENA is ſubject to its own Duke, and contains

Duchies.	Chief Towns.
Modena	Modena.
Mirandola	Mirandola
Rhegio	Rhegio, Borſello, Carpi.

The Republic of VENICE is ſubdivided in the following manner:

Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Venice	Venice	Rovigno	Rovigno
Paduan	Padua	Trevigiano	Treviſo
Veroneſe	Verona	Belluneſe	Belluno
Breſciano	Breſcia	Friuli	Aquileia
Cremaſco	Crema	Udineſe	Udina
Bergamaſco	Bergamo	Iſtria, part	Capo de Iſtria
Vincentino	Vincenza		

The Patriarchate, or the Dominions of the POPE, are ſubdivided thus:

Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Campania of Rome	Rome, Tivoli, Freſcati, Oſtia, Albano	Ancona, Marqui.	Ancona, Loretto
St. Peter's Patrimony.	Viterbo, Civita Vecchia, Bracciano, Caſtro, Orvietto, Aquapendente	Urbino, Duchy	Urbino, Peſaro, Semigalia
Ombria, or Spoletto	Spoletto, Narni, Terni, Perugia	Romania	Ravenna, Rimini
		Bologneſe	Bologna
		Ferrareſe	Ferrara, Comachia
		Republic of St. Marino	St. Marino

Iſland of CORSICA, ſubject to the French.

Chief towns, Baſtia and Bonifacio.

Iſland of MALTA, ſubject to the Knights. Chief town, Valetta.

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity; wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air: and ſome parts of Italy bear

	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Iſland of Sicily	Val de Mazara	Palermo
	Val de Demona	Meſſina
	Val de Noto	Catania, Syracuſe, Noto.

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Lipari, Strombulo, Rotte, Panaria, Elicuſa.
ISLANDS on the WEST COAST of ITALY.
Capri, Iſchia, Ponza, Pianoſa, &c.

The Houſe of AUSTRIA poſſeſſes the MILANESE, the MANTUAN, and TUSCANY.

The ſubdiviſions and chief towns in theſe territories are,

	Subdiviſions.	Titles.	Chief Towns.
Milaneſe	Milaneſe	Proper	Milan
	Paveſan		Pavia
	Navareſe		Navara
	Comaſco		Como
	Lodeſan		Lodi
	Cremoneſe		Cremona
Tuſcany	Florentina		Florence
	Sienneſe		Sienna
	Piſa		Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino
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Savona,	Territory	Savona	Ventimiglia, Territory	Ventimiglia
Vado,	Territory	Vado	Monaco, Principality	Monaco
Noli,	Territory	Noli	Rapallo, Territory	Rapallo
Final	Territory	Final	Lavigna	Lavigna
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Paduan	Padua	Trevigiano	Treviſo
Veroneſe	Verona	Belluneſe	Belluno
Breſciano	Breſcia	Friuli	Aquileia
Cremaſco	Crema	Udineſe	Udina
Bergamaſco	Bergamo	Iſtria, part	Capo de Iſtria
Vincentino	Vincenza		

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Ombria, or Spoletto	Spoletto, Narni, Terni, Perugia	Romania	Ravenna, Rimini
		Bologneſe	Bologna
		Ferrareſe	Ferrara, Comachia
		Republic of St. Marino	St. Marino

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bear melancholy proof of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential, through the decreaſe of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with ſnow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the South being warm, thoſe on the North mild and temperate. The ſea-breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the ancient Ciſalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iſco, and Garda, in the North; the Perugia or Thraſimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULFS OR BAYS, CAPES, PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. } Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory nor geography of Italy, can be underſtood. The ſeas of Italy are, the gulfs of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea; the ſeas of Naples, Tuſcany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento, del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; and the ſtrait of Meſſina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſtia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſo, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corſica; and the ſtrait of Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Meſſina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuſe, and Catania; Cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the iſland of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral ſprings; ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating theſe metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is ſaid to contain mines of gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and curious cryſtals and coral are found on the coaſt of Corſica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } Beſides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of ſoil, Italy produces

duces citrons, and ſuch quantities of cheſnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or ſea, and thoſe of France and Germany, already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's ſubjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itſelf, by the beſt accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the preſent inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, indeed, and ſome other of the moſt beautiful parts of Italy, are at preſent in a manner deſolate; but we are to conſider that the modern Italians are in a great meaſure free from the unintermitting wars, not to mention the tranſmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the ſixteenth century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and ſtates of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; ſo that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we aſſign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but ſome calculations greatly exceed that number *. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have ſuch meaning in their looks, that they have greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. Their women are well ſhaped, and ſprightly. The marriage ties, eſpecially of the higher claſs, are ſaid to be of little force. Every wife has been repreſented to have her gallant or ciciſbeo, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either ſide. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and, indeed, the repreſentations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the beſt quality of a modern Italian is ſobriety, and they ſubmit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity they diſcover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native cuſtoms, and ſeem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondneſs for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and ſatisfaction; and an Italian gentleman, or peaſant can be luxurious at a very ſmall expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many deſcendants of the ancient Romans, yet the preſent inhabitants ſpeak of themſelves as ſucceſſors to the conquerors of the world, and look upon the reſt of mankind as their inferiors.

The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans frequently dreſs in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts; though they make at preſent but a very inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

* Mr. Swinburne ſaith, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples amounted to 4,249,430, excluſive of the army and naval eſtabliſhment.

The Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriage, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them, for a month, or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenſed trade. The Italian courtezans, or *bona robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe-races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, except religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a matreſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp: for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches: an Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat. The ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains, fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage; another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed, as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad; and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night.

We beg leave to add a ſtill more modern deſcription of the national character of the Italians, given lately by the abbé Jagemann, member of the Florentine Academy of Agriculture; "Conſidering the mildneſs of the climate, the uncommon fertility of the ſoil, the ſituation of moſt towns and boroughs on hills, the excellent ſpring-water from the Alps and the Apennines, the number of mineral waters and baths, the ſpaciouſneſs of the ſtreets and houſes, the delightful views, the frequent reſidence of the Italians on their villas, the fragrancy and healthineſs of the air, the temperate diet, the facility of getting cured of diſeaſes in the hoſpitals, one is inclined to think that the corporeal frame of an Italian, if not enervated in early youth, cannot but be ſtrong, healthy, and beautiful. The handſomeſt perſons of either ſex are found in Tuſcany. The Italians, in general, are alſo endowed with good ſenſe and diſcernment; apt to deſpiſe mere theoretical ſpeculations, and

to

to judge by their own feelings and experience: but education is rather neglected. The chief part of their religion conſiſts in an external obſervance and practice of eccleſiaſtical rites, ceremonies, and injunctions. An Italian, not enlightened by reflexion and experience, will ſooner commit adultery than eat any fleſh-meat on a Friday; but a foreigner, who wiſhes to paſs for a Roman catholic, needs only to ſtick to his window an atteſtation, by a phyſician, that his ſtate of health requires a fleſh-meat diet; and he may, without any riſk, eat fleſh-meat in Lent. Such atteſtations may be purchaſed in coffee-houſes, at Florence. The Italians are very ſenſual; exceedingly fond of muſic; little addicted to drunkenneſs and coarſe jokes; impatient of delay in their paſſions for the fair ſex; jealous of the French; but fond of the national characters of the Engliſh and the Germans. They ſtill breathe their ancient ſpirit of liberty and republicaniſm, and are averſe to monarchical government, to which they were ſubjected by force. Hence, a true born Italian, of an independent fortune, ſeldom courts public employments; hence their beſt geniuſes too are little known; hence alſo their almoſt general inclination to ſatire, and the bitterneſs of their ſatires. Hence their general hatred and comtempt for the military ſervice, and for the miniſters and executors of criminal juriſdiction. Their dreſs and their whole conduct prove their fondneſs of liberty and eaſe, and their averſion to conſtraint, ceremony, and compliments. As ſo great a variety of enjoyments and conveniencies are, for an Italian, ſo many neceſſaries of life, he muſt be a rigid œconomiſt; but thoſe moſt famous for their œconomical management, are the Florentines and the Genoeſe. Hence their habitual cuſtom of entering into the moſt minute details and calculations, and of ſtrictly adhering to rules. Hence their peculiar talents and ſkill for commerce, trade, political œconomy, finances, their avidity for gain, and their envy at the proſperity of other people. Their reſentment laſts only till they have produced a ſatisfaction adequate to a wrong ſuſtained; they are leſs iraſcible than many other nations; but when groſsly injured in their character or fortunes, they are capable of every exceſs. Of aſſaſſinations, however, abbé Jagemann recollects only three inſtances in Tuſcany, in fifteen years. From their mutual diſtruſt, an Italian indeed ſeldom becomes an intimate friend to another Italian; but then their friendſhip proves the more cordial and laſting. No nation is more compaſſionate to the diſtreſſed, or more ready to ſerve ſtrangers; yet letters of recommendation ought not to be neglected by travellers."

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman-catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their worſhip. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of the cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs, are ſeventy: but that number is ſeldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing what he can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a ſcene where the cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay their

parts, and where many tranſactions paſs which hardly ſhew their inſpiration to be from the Holy Ghoſt. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink-ſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the proteſtant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Chriſtians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the church of Rome.

"I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother-church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous conſent of the fathers.

"I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments of the law, truly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of theſe, baptiſm, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the aboveſaid ſacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent * concerning original ſin and juſtification.

"I do alſo profeſs, that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſubſtantially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity, of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole ſubſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine into the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls Tranſubſtantiation. I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt and a true ſacrament is taken and received.

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls kept priſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

"I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints, reigning together with Chriſt, are to be worſhipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I do moſt firmly aſſert, that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſed Virgin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them †.

* A convocation of Roman-catholic cardinals, archbiſhops, biſhops, and divines, who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſuppreſs what they were pleaſed to term the Riſing Hereſies in the church.

† An Engliſh traveller, ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence, in Italy, deſcribes it as follows: I had occaſion, ſays he, to ſee a proceſſion, where all the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in ſack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies; but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

"I do

"I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgencies was left by Chriſt to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to Chriſtian people *.

"I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apoſtolical Roman church to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches; and I do promiſe and ſwear true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred canons and œcumenical councils, and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and anathematiſed by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematiſe."

ARCHBISHOPRICKS.] There are thirty-eight archbiſhopricks in Italy, but the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he pleaſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily maſtered by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent the Tuſcan ſtyle and writing is moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro, che ſei nel cielo, ſia ſanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia fatta, ſi come in cielo coſi anche in terra; dacci oggi il noſtro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i noſtri debiti, ſiccome noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori: e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciochè tuo è il regno, è la potenza, è la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] In the Introduction, we have particulariſed ſome of the great men which ancient Italy produced. In modern times, that is, ſince the revival of learning, ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning; but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy

* A long liſt of indulgencies, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be ſeen in a book printed 150 years ago, by authority of the then pope. It has been tranſlated into Engliſh, under the title of *Rome a great Cuſtom-Houſe for Sin*; from which we ſhall give a few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that ſtole holy or conſecrated things out of a holy place. 10s. 6d.
For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9s.
For a layman for *murdering* a layman, 7s. 6d.
For him that killeth his father, mother, wife, or ſiſter, 10s. 6d.
For laying violent hands on a *clergyman*, ſo it be without effuſion of blood, 10s. 6d.
For a prieſt that keeps a concubine: as alſo his diſpenſation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.
For him that lyeth with his *own mother*, *ſiſter*, or *godmother*, 7s. 6d.
For him that *burns* his neighbour's houſe, 12s.
For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1l. 7s.
For him that forgeth letters apoſtolical, 1l. 7s.
For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.
For a king for going to the holy ſepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a baſtard to enter all holy orders, 18s.
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Chriſtian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to viſit the apoſtolic churches, 18s.
To eat fleſh and white meats in Lent, and other faſting days, 10s. 6d.
That a king or queen ſhall enjoy ſuch indulgencies, as if they went to Rome, 15l.
For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.
To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.
To eat fleſh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.
Not to be tied to faſting days, 1l. 4s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken ſanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To abſolve all the delinquents, 3l.
To diſpenſe with irregularities, 3l.

owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Strada is an excellent hiſtorian; and the hiſtory of the council of Trent, by the celebrated Father Paul, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit; and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the proſe writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the moſt pure and correct in point of ſtyle: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the ſpirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Arioſto, and Taſſo, are the moſt diſtinguiſhed. There are ſaid to be upwards of a thouſand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metaſtaſio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces ſet to muſic. Sannazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions approaching in ſome degree to the claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who was ſo much diſtinguiſhed by his oppoſition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the Turks, revived taſte likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth, and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a new creation by his pencil, and ſtill ſtands at the head of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarotti excelled at once in painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their ſeveral manners. The ſame may be ſaid of Corelli, and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent, Italy cannot juſtly boaſt of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa*, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is ſtupendous, great, or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library might be filled by deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; but the bounds of this work admit not of enlarging upon this ſubject. We can give but a very brief account of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies of the moſt ſtriking magnificence: there are at Rome conſiderable remains of that which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coliſſeo. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſpaſian in this building; and it is ſaid to have been capable of containing eighty-ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are ſo juſt, that it does not appear near ſo large as it really is. But it has been ſtripped of all its magnficent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its deſtruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Car-

* Piſa hath 46 profeſſors.

ninal Farneſe, in particular, robbed it of ſome fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and, with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outſide caſing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farneſe. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of ſteps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thouſand perſons may be ſeated here at their eaſe, allowing one foot and a half for each perſon. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greateſt care, at the expence of the inhabitants. They frequently exhibited in it plays, combats of wild beaſts, and other public ſpectacles. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are alſo viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, anſwer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at preſent converted into a modern church, and which, from its circular figure, is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple now remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which anciently contained the ſtatues of the Heathen deities. The outſide of the building is of Tivoli free-ſtone, and within, it is encruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a ſtone full of holes. The colonade in the front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with an antique baſon of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians: the ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention the infinite variety of medals, ſeals, and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges, and the like, preſent themſelves all over Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground; witneſs the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above thirty years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; for ſo indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity

tiquity, that it was a new diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almoſt deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, anno 79, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The melted lava in its courſe filled up the ſtreets in ſome places to the height of ſixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. The lava is now of a conſiſtency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is compoſed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified ſandy ſubſtances, which altogether form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In the revolution of ſo many ages, the ſpot it ſtood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging in theſe parts, ſomewhat of this unfortunate city was diſcovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the ſearch was afterwards diſcontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but alſo the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a ſtatue of gold, and the inſcription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horſes of the ſame metal, likewiſe gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewiſe found among the ruins of this city multitudes of ſtatues, buſts, pillars, paintings, manuſcripts, furniture, and various utenſils; and the ſearch is ſtill continued. The ſtreets of the town appear to have been quite ſtraight and regular, and the houſes well built, and much alike; ſome of the rooms paved with moſaic, others with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and ſix inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up ſo unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greateſt part of the inhabitants from eſcaping with many of their rich effects; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen ſkeletons found, and but little of gold, ſilver, or precious ſtones. The difficulty of removing the rubbiſh induced his majeſty to fill it up again as he went on, after collecting all the moveables of any conſequence. The theatre alone is left open. It is larger than any in England; and the ends of the beams burnt to coal, are ſtill ſeen ſticking in the walls; but all the ornaments that withſtood the eruption are removed to Portici.

The town of Pompeia was deſtroyed by the ſame eruption of Mount Veſuvius, which occaſioned the deſtruction of Herculaneum; but it was not diſcovered till near forty years after the diſcovery of the latter. One ſtreet, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared; and that with more facility than at Herculaneum, no lava having ever gone over the aſhes which buried Pompeia. The ſtreet is well paved with the ſame kind of ſtone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow cauſeways are raiſed a foot and a half on each ſide for the conveniency of foot paſſengers. The ſtreet itſelf is not ſo broad as the narroweſt part of the Strand, and is ſuppoſed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be ſeen on the pavement. The houſes are ſmall, but give an idea of neatneſs and conveniency. The ſtucco on the walls is ſmooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, moſtly ſingle figures, repreſenting ſome animal. They are tolerably well executed, and on a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear ſurpriſingly freſh. Moſt of the houſes are built on the ſame plan, and have one ſmall room from the paſſage, which is conjectured to have been the ſhop, with a window

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to the ſtreet, and a place which ſeems to have been contrived for ſhewing the goods to the greateſt advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonade towards the court, ſomething in the ſtyle of the Royal Exchange at London, but ſmaller. This has every appearance of a barrack and guard-room; the pillars are of brick, covered with ſhining ſtucco, elegantly fluted; the ſcrawlings and drawings ſtill viſible on the walls, are ſuch as might be naturally expected on the walls of a guard-room, where ſoldiers are the deſigners, and ſwords the engraving tools. They conſiſt of gladiators fighting, ſome with each other, ſome with wild beaſts; the games of the circus, as chariot races, wreſtling, and the like; a few figures in caricatura, deſigned probably by ſome of the ſoldiers in ridicule of their companions, or perhaps of their officers; and there are many names inſcribed on various parts of the wall. At a conſiderable diſtance from the barrack is a temple of the goddeſs Iſis, the pillars of which are of brick, ſtuccoed like thoſe of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The beſt paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are thoſe of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few ſkeletons were found in the ſtreets of this town, but a conſiderable number in the houſes. In one apartment (ſays Mr. Sutherland) we ſaw the ſkeletons of ſeventeen poor wretches, who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, ſome of them in circumſtances which plainly ſhew that they were endeavouring to eſcape, when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as bewildered as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory.

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as its artificial. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles diſtant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Veſuvius towards the ſea, is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The South and Weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. The height of Mount Veſuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the ſurface of the ſea. It hath been a volcano beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition. An animated deſcription of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but ſmall and moderate, however then it broke out with accumulated fury, and deſolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell at thirty miles diſtance, and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the twenty-ſeventh from that which deſtroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this laſt eruption the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreet were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient, to guard themſelves againſt them.

The tops of the houſes, and the balconies, were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. An eruption happened alſo in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly deſcribed by ſir William Hamilton, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

This gentleman, the Britiſh envoy at the court of Naples, has been at great pains to inveſtigate the phænomena of this volcano. From the time of his arrival at Naples, in 1764, he paid particular regard to the ſtate of the mountain at all times, and obſerves that the ſmoke is much more conſiderable in bad, than in fair weather; and that the inward exploſions of the mountain are often heard at Naples in bad weather, which is ſix miles diſtant. On looking into the mouth from whence the fire iſſues, in fair weather the ſmoke has ſometimes been ſo little, that he has ſeen a great way down, and obſerved the ſides to be incruſted with ſalts and minerals of various colours, white, green, deep and pale yellow. In bad weather alſo the ſmoke was moiſt, white, and much leſs offenſive than the ſteams which iſſued from the cracks in the ſides of the mountain. The ſigns of an approaching eruption are an increaſe of the ſmoke in fair weather; and after this has continued for ſome time, a puff of black ſmoke is frequently ſeen to ſhoot up in the middle of the white kind to a prodigious height; and theſe puffs are attended with conſiderable exploſions. While Veſuvius was in this ſtate, ſir William aſcended to the top. It was about the beginning of November, and the upper part of the mountain was then covered with ſnow. A little hillock of ſulphur, about ſix feet high, had been thrown up by the mountain, and burned with a blue flame at the top; but while our author was examining this phænomenon, a ſudden and loud report was heard, a column of black ſmoke ſhot up with violence, and was followed by a reddiſh flame. A ſhower of ſtones fell, which obliged him to retire; and he informs us, that it is by no means ſafe to approach too near to the mountain in this ſtate, as ſome gentlemen, whom he mentions, were wounded by the ſtones which were thrown out by an exploſion of this kind. As the eruption proceeds, the ſmoke becomes totally black in the day time, and at night appears like clouds tinged by the ſetting ſun. Afterwards it appears like flame in the night; ſhowers of aſhes are thrown out, earthquakes are produced, and great volleys of red-hot ſtones are diſcharged to an immenſe height in the air. The height and diſtance to which theſe ſtones are thrown is generally in proportion to the magnitude of the volcano which emits them, and hence the exploſions of Veſuvius are for the moſt part leſs terrible than thoſe of Ætna, though this is not always the caſe; and the eruption in 1779 from Veſuvius ſeems to have been as violent as we have an account of in any volcano whatever. The largeſt ſtone thrown out by Veſuvius, whoſe dimenſions have been meaſured, was 12 feet in length, and 45 in circumference. It was projected to the diſtance of a quarter of a mile from the place where it was emitted; but much larger ones have been thrown out from volcanoes of a ſuperior magnitude; and Mr. Brydone was aſſured by the Canon Recupero, that he had ſeen ſtones of immenſe magnitude thrown out from Ætna, to the height of more than 7,000 feet above the top of the mountain, as he calculated from the time they took in falling. Along with theſe dreadful phænomena, the ſmoke which iſſues from the mountain is in a highly electrified ſtate: the ſmall aſhes which the mountain continually throws out, along with the ſtones and cinders, are attracted by the ſmoke, and form with it one vaſt, and, to appearance, denſe column, from whence continual flaſhes of forked, or zig-zag lightning iſſue, ſometimes attended with thunder, and ſometimes not, but equally powerful with the ordinary lightning. This phænomenon has been taken notice of in the accounts of all volcanoes. Pliny

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mentions it in his account of the great eruption in 79; it has been obſerved in thoſe of the Icelandic volcanoes; in Ætna; and Sir William Hamilton has more than once ſeen it proceed from the ſmoke of Veſuvius.

The eruption of lava in 1766 took place on the 28th of March, about ſeven at night. The lava began to boil over in one ſtream, but ſoon after divided itſelf into two. It was preceded by a partial earthquake in the neighbourhood of the mountain, occaſioned by a violent exploſion, and a ſhower of red-hot ſtones and cinders were thrown up to a conſiderable height. The lava had the appearance of red-hot and liquid metal, ſuch as the vitrified matter of the glaſs-houſes, on which were large floating cinders half lighted, and rolling one over another down the mountain with great precipitation, forming a moſt beautiful and uncommon caſcade. The colour of the fire was much paler and brighter the firſt night than any of the ſubſequent ones, when it became of a deep red, probably owing, ſays Sir William, to its having been more impregnated with ſulphur at firſt than afterwards. In the day time, unleſs you are very near it, the lava has no appearance of fire, but its courſe is marked by a thick white ſmoke.

The heat of the lava was ſuch, that one could not approach nearer than within ten feet of the ſtream, and of ſuch conſiſtence (though it appeared as liquid as water) as almoſt to reſiſt the impreſſion of a long ſtick, with which the experiment was made. Large ſtones thrown upon it with all his force did not ſink; but, making a ſlight impreſſion, floated on the ſurface, and were carried out of ſight in a ſhort time; for, notwithſtanding the conſiſtency of the matter, it ran with great velocity; not leſs, in our author's opinion, than that of the river Severn at the paſſage near Briſtol. The ſtream was about ten feet wide at its ſource, but ſoon extended itſelf, dividing into three branches, ſo that theſe rivers of fire, communicating their heat to the cinders of former lavas, between one branch and the other, had the appearance at night of a continued ſheet of fire, four miles long, and in ſome places near two in breadth.

Next year there was a much more violent eruption of the mountain; and the frequent emiſſions of red-hot ſtones and cinders, which took place previous to the eruption, had at laſt formed a ſmall mountain within the mouth of the great one, by their continually falling back into the place from whence they were emitted; and from the top of this little mountain the ſmoke iſſued ſo thick, that it ſeemed to have a difficulty in effecting a paſſage; while volleys of great ſtones were every minute thrown up to an immenſe height. At laſt the whole took the ſhape of a huge pine tree, which appearance was taken notice of by Pliny in his account of the eruption in 79. The column aſcended to ſuch an extraordinary height, as, when bent by the wind, to reach the iſland of Caprea, not leſs than 28 miles from Veſuvius. Theſe violent ſymptoms ceaſed on the burſting forth of the lava; after which our author, ſuppoſing the danger was over, went to the mountain to make his obſervations. But while he was employed in this manner, a violent noiſe was heard within the mountain, immediately after which the lava broke out from a new mouth only a quarter of a mile diſtant from where he ſtood, ſpringing up to a conſiderable height in the air, and rolling directly towards him. He was now in extreme danger, the earth ſhaking with ſuch violence as to endanger the fall of ſome of the rocks under which he muſt neceſſarily paſs, while the ſhowers of cinders and pumice-ſtone threatened to overwhelm him; and the clouds of ſmoke produced ſuch an intenſe darkneſs, that he could not ſee which way to go. The ſulphureous ſmell was likewiſe very offenſive, and the exploſions of the mountain were much louder than thunder. In this ſituation he ran three miles before he got out of danger, and afterwards perceived that the lava had actually covered the road by which he retreated, and

that to the depth of no leſs than 60 or 70 feet. The concuſſions of the air were ſo violent upon this occaſion, that windows and doors of houſes, even though locked, were burſt open. There was likewiſe a continual and rumbling ſubterraneous noiſe; which laſted for ſeveral hours, and which ſir William conjectured to have been owing to rain-water lodged in the cavities of the mountain, and meeting with the lava.

The eruption of 1779 was much more violent than that already deſcribed. It commenced in the month of Auguſt, and beſides the uſual ſymptoms of volleys of ſtones, immenſe clouds of ſmoke, &c. a moſt extraordinary ſcene was preſented by the approach of a thunder cloud. No ſooner did this come over the mouth of the inflamed volcano, than the fire from its bowels ſpouted out in a vaſt column to meet that in the cloud; both together producing an appearance not to be paralleled. Next night the lava, which had not hitherto got ſufficient vent, after a moſt aſtoniſhing exploſion, ſpouted up to the height of at leaſt 10,000 feet above the ſummit of the mountain, while the ſmoke around it, emitting continual flaſhes of zig-zag lightning, gave an appearance much more awful and tremendous, though, according to ſir William, leſs beautiful than that of the preceding evening. On this occaſion the town of Ottaiano, upon which the volcanic ſhower was driven by the wind, narrowly eſcaped the fate of Herculaneum and Pompeii of old. The vaſt ſtream of lava indeed did not reach them, otherwiſe it muſt have been irreſiſtible.

To the ſubterraneous fires by which the volcanoes are produced, we muſt undoubtedly aſcribe the frequency of earthquakes in this country. In the year 1783, the ſouthern part of Italy was ruined by one of the moſt violent earthquakes mentioned in hiſtory. It affected alſo the iſland of Sicily, but leſs violently than the country already mentioned. Its extent, however, was much leſs than that of ſeveral others. Sir William Hamilton fixes the centre of its force at the town of Oppido; and from the ſurvey which he made of the country which had ſuffered, computes that its violent effects were confined within a circle whoſe circumference is 220 Italian miles, and its centre the town of Oppido; nor did it produce any ſenſible effects beyond the circumference of a circle whoſe radius was 72 ſuch miles, and Oppido the centre.

The moſt violent ſhock happened about noon on the 5th of February; it came on inſtantaneouſly, without any warning, and the ſhock ſeemed to be directed perpendicularly upwards. The city of Oppido is ſituated on a mountain, ſurrounded by two rivers, in a very broad and deep ravine. Into this there were vaſt pieces of the plain detached, in ſuch a manner as to ſtop the courſe of both the rivers, and to form two great lakes. Part of the rock on which Oppido ſtood was alſo precipitated into the ſame hollow, with ſeveral houſes which had been built upon it. Vaſt tracts of land, with large plantations of vines and olive trees, were thrown from one ſide of the hollow to the other, though the diſtance was more than half a mile; and with one of theſe vaſt pieces of earth a countryman was tranſported along with his field and two oxen, who were dragging a plough, to the diſtance above mentioned, without receiving any hurt. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance, however, was, that a hill about 250 feet high, and 1300 in circumference, was moved from its place near four miles down this ravine, before it ſettled. In ſeveral places alſo the ſoil, though there was no appearance of fire upon it, had run like the lava of a volcano, and overflowed, like it, the neighbouring grounds.

At Terra Nuova, the ground on which the town ſtood was ſplit under it, and many hundred houſes, with the earth on which they ſtood, were in a ſimilar manner thrown about half a mile from the place where they ſtood; and, what is very extraordinary, ſome of the inhabitants were dug out of the ruins alive, and even unhurt.

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At Caſal Nuova, the princeſs Gerace Grimaldi, with more than 4000 of her ſubjects, were deſtroyed in a moment. Some of the inhabitants, who had been dug alive out of the ruins, declared that they felt their houſes ſuddenly lifted from the foundation, without having had the leaſt previous warning. An inhabitant of the place, who happened to be on an hill which overlooks the town, at that time, turned about on feeling the ſhock, but, inſtead of the town, ſaw only a vaſt cloud of white duſt in the place where it had been. The whole indeed was ſo effectually overthrown, that no veſtige of houſe or ſtreet remained, all being converted into one promiſcuous heap of ruins.

Near Scilla, a mountain fell into the ſea, and raiſed ſuch a vaſt wave, as ſwept away the prince of Scilla, with 2473 of his ſubjects at once. A great part of the town of Meſſina was overthrown. The part of Calabria which was moſt affected by this grievous calamity, was that which is comprehended between 38 and 39 degrees.

Such were ſome of the particulars of this earthquake, remarkable not only for its violence, but for the number and continnance of its ſhocks, which ſcarcely ceaſed for a whole year after its commencement. The number of perſons who loſt their lives was computed not to be leſs than 40,000, and the damage in other reſpects was prodigious.

It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that though Mount Veſuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good; even this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country around it, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Beſides, it is ſuppoſed that the mountain, being open and active, proves leſs hoſtile to Naples, than it would be, if its erruptions were to ceaſe, and its ſtruggles confined to its own bowels, for then might enſue the moſt fatal ſhocks to the unſtable foundation of the whole diſtrict of Terra di Lavora *.

The plain of Solfaterra, (ſo called from the vaſt quantities of ſulphur, which are continually forced out of the cliffs by ſubterranean fires), which is juſtly conſidered as one of the natural curioſities of Italy, and is ſituated between the lakes Agnano and Puzuoli, is no other than the crater of an ancient volcano, or the hollow from whence its eruptions formerly iſſued. In the plain within the hollow, ſmoke ſtill iſſues from many parts, as well as from many places in the ſides. From theſe places they collect a kind of ſal ammoniac, but in a very aukward manner, by heaping ſtones upon one another to collect the vapours as they riſe. From the ſoil of the plain, ſulphur and alum are extracted; and our author is of opinion, that by careful management this ſpot might produce a very conſiderable revenue, though at preſent it does not yield above 200l. annually. The hollow ſound produced by throwing a heavy ſtone upon the plain of Solfaterra, ſeems to indicate that it is ſupported by a kind of vault; and it is alſo probable, that there is underneath it a pool

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May 1783, gives ſeveral reaſons for believing that they were occaſioned by the operation of a volcano, the ſeat of which lay deep either under the bottom of the ſea, between Stromboli, and the coaſt of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly obſerved a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as alſo in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or leſs diſtant from this ſuppoſed centre of the evil. One circumſtance he particularly remarked: if two towns were ſituated at an equal diſtance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always ſuffered greatly more by the ſhocks of the earthquakes than the former: a ſufficient proof to him of the cauſe coming from beneath.

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of water, which boils by the heat of a ſubterraneous fire ſtill deeper. This ſuppoſition is confirmed by the very moiſt ſteam which iſſues from the cracks in the ground, and runs off in great drops from a piece of cold iron preſented to it. On the outſide, and towards the lake Agnano, water guſhes out of the rock ſo hot as to raiſe the quickſilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer to the boiling point. After a great deal of rain, however, the heat of this fountain is much leſs. When you hold your ear near the rocks from whence the water iſſues, you hear a horrid boiling noiſe, which ſeems to proceed from the huge cauldron that may be ſuppoſed to be under the Solfaterra.

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It ſtands ſeparate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almoſt the whole year covered with ſnow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of theſe, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were deſtroyed, and there have been ſeveral terrible eruptions ſince that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed.

The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there; and doubtleſs, it would have the ſame effect on man, or any other animal, whoſe head was held near to the ground. This noxious vapour is no other than fixed air, which is produced probably from the efferveſcence of an acid and alkaline mixture; and this being heavier than common air, is near the earth, and fatal to thoſe animals whoſe heads are ſo low as to breathe it. Scorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are ſaid to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice, which are called the Glaciers of Savoy, deſerve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which incloſe the vale of Chamouny, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn-fields, and rich meadows; ſo that immenſe tracts of ice are blended with the higheſt cultivation, and perpetually ſucceed to each other, in the moſt ſingular and ſtriking viciſſitude. All theſe ſeveral vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the higheſt mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world: but for a fuller deſcription of this celebrated mountain, and of the glaciers that ſurround it, we refer our readers to the account of Switzerland.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES.

Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian ſtates are not, like the republics of Holland, or Swizerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable (for every Italian ſtate has diſtinct forms of government, trade, and intereſts) I ſhall be obliged to take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or, as he is now ſtyled, king of SARDINIA *, taking his royal title from that iſland, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called

* Victor-Amadeus-Maria, king of Sardinia and duke of Savoy, born June 26, 1726; married, April 12, 1750, to Maria-Antonietta-Ferdinanda, infanta of Spain; aſcended the throne on the death of his father, February 20, 1773. Their iſſue are,

1. Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinard-Maria, prince of Piedmont, born May 24, 1751.
2. Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence.

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the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French. His capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimple but very honeſt people. The king is ſo abſolute, that his revenues conſiſt of what he pleaſes to raiſe upon his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than 500,000l. ſterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, he can bring into the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his preſent Sardinian majeſty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation, he was eſteemed a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe. Savoy is celebrated for its breed of mules; and Piedmont raiſes large quantities of ſilk. Its wines and *liqueurs* are likewiſe highly eſteemed.

The MILANESE, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, is a conſiderable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000l. annually, which is ſuppoſed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political aſſemblies. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; ſo that its revenue, unleſs the court of Vienna ſhould purſue ſome other ſyſtem of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua, being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Auſtrian Lombardy.

The republic of GENOA is vaſtly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a ſuperb city, and contains ſeveral magnificent palaces, particularly thoſe of Doria *, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to ſave expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers, becauſe to any one of them it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility: the chief perſon is called the Doge, or Duke; to which dignity no perſon is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is choſen, and the former is incapable,

3. Maria-Thereſa, born January 31, 1756; married to the count D'Artois.
4. Anna-Maria-Carolina, born December 17, 1757.
5. Victor-Emanuel Cajetan duc d'Aoſte, born July 24, 1759.
6. Maurice-Joſeph-Maria, duc de Montſerrat, born September 12, 1762.
7. Maria-Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
8. Charles-Joſeph, duc de Genevois, born April 6, 1765.
9. Joſeph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

* Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468: he was offered the ſovereignty of the ſtate, but refuſed it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which ſtill ſubſiſts: he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

during five years, of holding the ſame poſt again. The doge gives audience to ambaſſadors; all orders of government are iſſued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the veſtiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated, except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their ancient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothiciſm. They have had however lately ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem to be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the conſtitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magiſtrates being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people, and ſo continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were inveſted with great power, which they often groſſly abuſed, and ſome of them were aſſaſſinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legiſlative nobility was formed; progreſſive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and a complete ariſtocracy was at length eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. Theſe elect a doge or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner, by ballot, which is managed by gold and ſilver balls. The doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of ſupreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to ſtir from the city without the permiſſion of the grand-council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwiſe called the ſeigniory, is the ſupreme cabinet council of the ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers anſwers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambaſſadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It alſo receives all requeſts and memorials on ſtate affairs, ſummons the ſenate at pleaſure, and arranges the buſineſs to be diſcuſſed in that aſſembly. The council of ten takes cognizance of ſtate crimes, and has the power of ſeizing accuſed perſons, examining them in priſon, and taking their anſwers in writing, with the evidence againſt them. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which conſiſts only of three members, and which is in the higheſt degree deſpotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate; the higheſt of the nobility, even the doge himſelf, not being excepted. To theſe three inquiſitors is given the right of employing ſpies, and iſſuing orders to ſeize all perſons whoſe words or actions they think reprehenſible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they pleaſe, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers; and of courſe, they may command acceſs to the houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continue in office only one year, but are not reſponſible afterwards for their conduct whilſt they were in authority. So much diſtruſt and

jealouſy are diſplayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourſe with foreign ambaſſadors, or with foreigners who viſit them.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or ſtate-barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, is the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord-mayor's ſhew. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and above all, fine looking-glaſſes, which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate annually is ſaid to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian florins, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate and the pay of the army, which in time of peace conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general), and 10,000 militia. They keep up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolences of the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and they have among them ſome orders of knighthood, the chief of which are thoſe of the *Stola d'oro*, ſo called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the firſt quality, and the military order of St. Mark, of which in the proper place.

In eccleſiaſtical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate; and all religious ſects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting Proteſtants, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amuſements, with an uncommon reliſh for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the ſtreets of Venice, reſembling thoſe tranſmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veroneſe and Titian. The women are of a fine ſtyle of countenance, with expreſſive features, and are of an eaſy addreſs. The common people are remarkably ſober, obliging to ſtrangers, and gentle in their intercourſe with each other. As it is very much the cuſtom to go about in maſks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiouſneſs of manners here than in other places: but this opinion ſeems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of ſtrangers viſit Venice during the carnival, and eight or nine theatres are then open.

The dominions of Venice conſiſt of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the iſlands of Corfu, Pachſu, Antipachſu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenza and Breſcia, the diſtricts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The ſubjects of the Venetian republic are not oppreſſed: the ſenate has found, that mild treatment and good uſage are the beſt policy, and more effectual than armies in preventing revolts.

The principal city of TUSCANY is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious

houſe of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly in architecture, literature, and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often deſcribed; but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents, ſo that in every reſpect it is reckoned, after Rome, the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medicis, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. The inſcription on its baſe mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſter-pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca; and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar-windows, and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs. Since the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopold, brother to the late emperor, to this duchy, a great reformation has been introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great-duchy of Tuſcany could bring to the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its preſent revenues are above 500,000l. a year. The other principal towns of Tuſcany, are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the firſt and laſt are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the modern taſte, and with ſuch regularity that both gates are ſeen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many villas on the land ſide. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free acceſs, and may ſettle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are ſaid to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and, though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand-duchy of Tuſcany keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom; for in ſuch a ſituation, an univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of their darling Liberty, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It has been remarked that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in poſſeſſion of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St MARINO is here mentioned as a political curioſity. Its territories conſiſt of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the ſmall value of their territory, have preſerved its conſtitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guaſtalla, now form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy. The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages, and contain conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. Parma is a biſhop's ſee, and has an univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The preſent duke of Parma is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, ſome years paſt, the ſeat of a bloody war between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him thither the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is deemed the politeſt of any in Italy, and his revenues are ſaid to exceed 100,000l. ſterling a year, a ſum rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milaneſe, in poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria. The capital is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boaſt that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now to be called Auſtrian Lombardy.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is ſtill governed by its own duke, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwic deſcended. The duke is abſolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, and is a vaſſal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flouriſhing, though very improveable, they having been alternately waſted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of Popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſion, are here too viſible. Thoſe ſpots which, under the maſters of the world, were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes, ſurrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious peſtilential marſhes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords a ſcanty ſubſiſtence to a thouſand miſerable peaſants. Notwithſtanding this, the pope is a conſiderable temporal prince, and ſome ſuppoſe that his annual revenue amounts to above a million ſterling: other authors rate it much higher. When we ſpeak comparatively, the ſum of a million ſterling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his territorial poſſeſſions; his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that ſum, is now diminiſhed, by the ſuppreſſion of the order of Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken by the popiſh powers

for preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of money to Rome. According to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes upon the proviſions and lodgings furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form now the greateſt part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened within theſe thirty years paſt, there is reaſon to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon ſhall pleaſe to preſcribe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The diſcouragement of induſtry and agriculture ſcems to be interwoven in the conſtitution of the papal government, which is veſted in proud, lazy eccleſiaſtics. Their indolence, and the fanaticiſm of their worſhip, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and impoſing upon ſtrangers, to induſtry and agriculture, eſpecially as they muſt hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their ſuperiors. In ſhort, the inhabitants of many parts of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate muſt periſh through their ſloth, did not the fertility of their ſoil ſpontaneouſly afford them ſubſiſtence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and ſloth of the lower ranks do not take their riſe from their natural diſpoſitions.

This obſervation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and coſtly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repoſitory of taſte and magnificence. This paſſion diſabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the induſtry, or relieving the wants of their ſubjects; and its miſerable effects are ſeen in many parts of Italy. The ſplendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions are inexpreſſible, and partly account for the miſery of the ſubjects.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curioſities and antiquities. It ſtands upon the Tiber, an inconſiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by ſmall boats, barges, and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, would be found to be a place of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtanding upon the ruins of ancient Rome lies much higher, ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When we conſider Rome as it now ſtands, there is ſome reaſon to believe that it equals ancient Rome itſelf in the magnificence of its ſtructures; nothing in the old city, when miſtreſs of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utenſils, and furniture, her ancient temples. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we conſider that the ſpirit of travelling is much increaſed ſince that time, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be diminiſhed at preſent.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has his guards, or ſbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his holineſs. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopoliſes all the corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wiſely diſclaimed all intention of oppoſing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but thoſe of prayers and ſupplications.

We have under the head of religion mentioned the eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy. As to the rota, and other ſubordinate chambers of this complicated

jurisdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under our plan. Under a government so constituted, it cannot be supposed that the commercial exports of the ecclesiastical state are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate *à latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope; and perhaps their distance of near two hundred miles from Rome, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the sixteenth century; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), ANCONA, and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine Infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver ballustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been matter of surprize, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed, that the real treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Apennine runs through it from North to South, and its surface is estimated at 3500 square leagues. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines, called Vino Græco and Lachryma Christi, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with

with deſtruction, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects and reptiles, ſome of which are venomous. The houſes in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general are five or ſix ſtories in height, and flat at the top: on which are placed numbers of flower vaſes, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the ſtreets are very handſome: no ſtreet in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo at Naples; and ſtill leſs can any of them be compared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lie open to the bay. The richeſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the moſt fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them; and a ſmall part of their revenue is ſpent in feeding the poor, the monks diſtributing bread and ſoup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king amount to above 750,000l. ſterling a year; but it is more than probable that, by the new eſtabliſhed police purſued by the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majeſty's annual income will conſiderably exceed a million ſterling. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, aniſeeds, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaroni, ſalt, pot-aſh, flax, cotton, ſilk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains, at leaſt 350,000 inhabitants. Among theſe are about 30,000 lazaroni, or blackguards, the greater part of whom have no dwelling-houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of ſhelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they reſort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they ſleep in crowds like ſheep in a penfold. Thoſe of them who have wives and children, live in the ſuburbs of Naples, near Pauſilippo, in huts, or in caverns or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing, others by carrying burthens to and from the ſhipping; many walk about the ſtreets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very ſmall recompence. As they do not meet with conſtant employment, their wages are not ſufficient for their maintenance; but the deficiency is in ſome degree ſupplied by the ſoup and bread which are diſtributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among the great. The Neapolitan nobility are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the grandeur of their titles. According to Mr. Swinburne, luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their heads, as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap: but hair plainly dreſt is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants, and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme. The great families are oppreſſed with a load of debt; the working part of the community always ſpend the price of their labour before they receive it; and the citizen is reduced to great parſimony, and almoſt penury, in

his houſe-keeping, in order to anſwer theſe demands of external ſhew: ſhort commons at home whet his appetite when invited out to dinner; and it is ſcarcely credible what quantities of victuals he will devour. The nobility in general are well ſerved, and live comfortably; but it is not their cuſtom to admit ſtrangers to their table; the number of poor dependents who dine with them, and cannot properly be introduced into company, prevents the great families from inviting foreigners: another reaſon may be, their ſleeping after dinner in ſo regular a manner as to undreſs and go to bed: no ladies or gentlemen finiſh their toilet till the afternoon, on which account they dine at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of ſtate, and miniſters, live in a different manner, and keep ſumptuous tables, to which ſtrangers and others have frequent invitations.

Through every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be ſaid to tread on claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town of Cannæ; as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries: and the ſcene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is ſtill marked out to poſterity by the name of *pezzo di ſangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little elſe than its fiſheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of ſteep rocks, that over-hang the bay, and, of all the places in the kingdom, hath the moſt delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Auguſtus Cæſar died, is now hardly worth obſervation.

Brunduſium, now Brindiſi, was the great ſupplier of oyſters for the Roman tables. It hath a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a ſtate of inactivity and poverty, from which it hath not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculpture as Benevento; here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, erected in the year 114, is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. The town was deſtroyed by an earthquake before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar; part of the wall ſtill remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in 1783, but not deſtroyed: only 126 loſt their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greateſt force thereof ſeems to have been exerted near that ſpot, and at Caſal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, moſt of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To aſcertain the extent of the ravages, ſir William Hamilton, who ſurveyed it, gives the following deſcription: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compaſſes on the ſcale of Italian miles, you were to meaſure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the ſpot on which the earthquake had exerted its greateſt force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I juſt ſaid, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the ſpots where the greateſt mortality has happened, and where there have been the moſt viſible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compaſs on the ſame ſcale to 72 miles, preſerving the ſame centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

The iſland of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity: but its cultivation, and conſequently fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy.

Both

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea, and the ſhocks of earthquakes, ſo as to become a perfect iſland. The climate of Sicily is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January the ſhade is refreſhing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient to baniſh the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the ſummit of Mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preſerving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations, are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handſome, and the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many reſpects be a delightful place of reſidence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a conſiderable trade. The dead at Pelermo are never buried; but their bodies are carried to the Capuchin convent, where, after the funeral ſervice is performed, they are dried in a ſtove, heated by a compoſition of lime, which makes the ſkin adhere to the bones. They are then placed erect in niches, and faſtened to the wall by the back or neck. A piece of coarſe drab is thrown over the ſhoulders and round the waiſt, and their hands are tied together, holding a piece of paper with their epitaph, which is ſimply their names, age, and when they died. "We of courſe" (ſays Mr. Sutherland) "viſited this famous repoſitory, and it is natural to ſuppoſe that ſo many corpſes would impreſs one with reverence and awe. It was near duſk when we arrived at the convent. We paſſed the chapel, where one of the order had juſt finiſhed ſaying veſpers, by the gloomy glimmering of a dying lamp. We were then conducted through a garden, where the yew, the cypreſs, and the barren orange, obſcured the remaining light, and where melancholy ſilence is only diſturbed by the hollow murmuring of a feeble water-fall. All theſe circumſtances tuned our minds for the diſmal ſcene we were going to behold, but we had ſtill to deſcend a flight of ſteps impervious to the ſun; and theſe at laſt conveyed us to the dreary manſion of the dead. But notwithſtanding the chilling ſcene we had gone through; notwithſtanding our being in the midſt of more than a thouſand lifeleſs bodies, we could not help ſmiling. For the phyſiognomies of the deceaſed are ſo ludicrouſly mutilated, and their muſcles ſo contracted and diſtorted in the drying, that no French mimick could equal their grimaces. Moſt of the corpſes have loſt the lower part of the noſe—their necks are generally a little twiſted—their mouths drawn awry in one direction—their noſes in another—their eyes ſunk and pointed different ways—one ear perhaps turned up—the other drawn down. The relations of the deceaſed are bound to ſend two wax tapers every year for the uſe of the convent; in default of which the corpſe is taken down and thrown into the charnel houſe. Women are dried as well as the men, but are not expoſed. Nobles are ſhut up in cheſts.

Meſſina was formerly a place of conſiderable trade, and before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city and of the port was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the ſhape of a creſcent, which extended along the water ſide, for above two thouſand yards, adorned with pilaſters and pediments, and a grand eſplanade open to the ſea, which at once formed a noble pier,

and

and a delightful public walk, flanked by a fort at each end. The houſes were built with great taſte, all four ſtories high, and nearly alike. Of this beautiful and magnificent range, only the outſide ſhell remains; the reſt, with all the town, except one or two of the ſtrongeſt churches, was entirely deſtroyed; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Meſſina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain; for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed population, of the city, only 700 are ſaid to have periſhed *.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles ſouth by weſt of Leghorn, and hath ſeven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is an univerſity, an archbiſhoprick, and the ſeat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majeſty's revenues, from this iſland, do not exceed 5000l. ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad, from its marſhes and high mountains on the North, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719 to the houſe of Savoy.

The iſland of CORSICA lies oppoſite to the Genoeſe continent, between the gulf of Genoa and the iſland of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble ſtand which the inhabitants made for their liberty againſt their Genoeſe tyrants, and afterwards, though unſucceſsfully, againſt the baſe and ungenerous meaſures of the French to enſlave them, than from any advantages they enjoy from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and rivers, with fiſh. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of ſome ſtrength; though other towns of the iſland, that were in poſſeſſion of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an iſland to which Auguſtus Cæſar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a ſcene of the moſt infamous pleaſures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from Eaſt to Weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vaſtly high, and inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Ano Capri, the largeſt town of the iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a ſlip of lower ground that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can eaſily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely freſh and beautiful, and afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, ſome re-

* Ferdinand IV. king of the Two Sicilies, third ſon of the preſent king of Spain, was born in 1751, and married, 1768, to the archduchеſs Maria-Caroline-Louiſa, ſiſter to the emperor of Germany, born in 1752; by whom he hath iſſue,

1. Maria-Thereſa-Caroline, born June 6, 1772.
2. Louiſa-Maria-Amelia, born July 28, 1773.
3. Mary-Anne-Joſepha, born 1775.
4. Francis-Janvier, born 1777.
5. Mary-Chriſtina, born 1779.

mains of which are ſtill to be ſeen. But the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory; from which there is a very noble proſpect; on one ſide of it the ſea extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples.

ISCHIA, and ſome other iſlands on the coaſts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to diſtinguiſh them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners. ELBA hath been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of hiſtory. Virgil and Ariſtotle mention it. Its ſituation is about ten miles S. W. from Tuſcany, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants; it is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, and the great duke of Tuſcany, who is maſter of Porto Ferraio, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the iſland are very good, and the tunnery, fiſhery, and ſalt, produce a good revenue.

I ſhall here mention the iſle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in 15 degrees E. lon. and 45 degrees N. lat. 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but exceſſively hot: the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden-ſtuff of all kinds. This iſland, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: they are now known by the diſtinction of the Knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-maſter, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reſide on the iſland, the remainder are in their ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummons are to make a perſonal appearance. They had a ſeminary in England, till it was ſuppreſſed by Henry VIII. They are conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide. They wear the badge of the order, a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, pendent to a black watered ribband at the breaſt, and the badge is decorated ſo as to diſtinguiſh the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families, or ſuch as can prove their gentility for ſix deſcents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are 16 called the great croſſes, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marſhal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are choſen. When the great-maſter dies, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out of the iſland till another is choſen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the 16 great croſſes, the great-maſter is elected, whoſe title is, "The moſt illuſtrious, and moſt reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great maſter of the hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem, prince of Malta, and Gaza." All the knights are ſworn to defend the church, to obey their ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valetta, or Malta, and its harbour, but their whole iſland, is ſo well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 8th of September, there is an annual proceſſion at Malta, in memory of the Turks raiſing the ſiege on that day, 1563, after four months aſſault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three fleurs-de-lis, or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion winged, ſejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupporters, two griffins, or. The arms of Naples, are, azure, ſemée of fleurs-de-lis, or, with a label of five points, gules.

The order of "*St. Januarius*" was inſtituted by the preſent king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July, 1738. The number of knights is limited to 30. They muſt prove the nobility of their deſcent for four centuries, and are to be addreſſed by the title of excellency. The badge of the order is a croſs of eight points, enamelled white, edged with gold, and in the centre is a biſhop holding in his left hand a book and croſier, and below his waiſt is this motto, "*In ſanguine foedus*;" on the reverſe is a book, on which are two red pillars ſurmounted with palms, enamelled in their proper colours. The knights wear the badge of the order pendent to a broad red ribband, worn ſcarfwiſe, and a gold ſtar of eight points with fleurs-de-lis at the angles embroidered on their outer garment. St. Januarius the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of the order. The order of "*Annunciation*," was inſtituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes againſt the Turks, and with thoſe arms which are now borne by the duke of Savoy, gules, a croſs argent. It at firſt conſiſted of 15 knights, but afterwards the number was enlarged. At preſent their number is ſmall, limited by the will of the prince, ſovereign of the order. It is counted amongſt the moſt reſpectable orders in Europe; the knight muſt not only be of a noble family, but alſo a papiſt. The colour of the order is compoſed of golden roſes, enamelled red and white, with lovers' knots of the ſame. To the end of the middle roſe is pendent the badge, which conſiſts of three chains of gold, encircling an oval, and diſpoſed in knots. On the oval is repreſented the ſalutation, as deſcribed by St. Luke, enamelled in proper colours. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, inſtituted the order of "*St. Lazarus*" and revived and united the obſolete order of St. Maurice to it; which was confirmed by the pope on the condition of maintaining two gallies againſt the Turks. The badge of the order is a croſs pomette, white, upon a croſs of eight points, green, and is worn pendent to a green ribband.

In the year 828, it is pretended, that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly this ſaint has been taken for their tutelar ſaint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their enſigns and banners. When the order of "*St. Mark*," was firſt inſtituted, is uncertain, but it is an order conferred by the doge, or duke of Venice, and the ſenate, on perſons of eminent quality, or who have done ſome ſignal ſervice to the republic. The knights when made, if preſent, are dubbed with a ſword on their ſhoulders, the duke ſaying, "*Eſto miles fidelis*," (be a faithful ſoldier;) abſent perſons are inveſted by letters patent; but their title, "Knights of St. Mark," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligations by vows as other orders. The badge is a medal of gold, pendent to a gold chain: on one ſide is the emblem of St. Mark, a winged lion ſejant with elevated wings, holding in his ſiniſter paw a drawn ſword erect, and in his right an open book with the words, "*Pax tibi*,

Marce Evangeliſta meus;" on the reverſe, the portrait of the reigning doge, with the image of St. Mark, delivering a ſtandard to him.

About the year 1460, Frederick III. emperor of Germany, inſtituted the order of "*St. George*" and dedicated it to St. George, tutelar ſaint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand maſter; the badge a plain croſs, enamelled, gules, pendent to a gold chain, and worn about their necks. The croſs is alſo embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Coſmo of Medicis, firſt grand duke of Tuſcany, inſtituted the order of "*St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory, which ſecured to him the ſovereignty of that province. He and his ſucceſſors were to be grand maſters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houſes are at Piſa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of Juſtice and the Eccleſiaſtics, are obliged to make proof of nobility of four deſcents. They wear a red croſs with right angles, orled or, on the left ſide of their habit, and on their mantle.

The order of the "*Holy Ghoſt*," was founded with their chief ſeat, the hoſpital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand maſter, and profeſs obedience, chaſtity, and poverty. Their revenue is eſtimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain ſtrangers, relievo the poor, train up deſerted children, &c. Their enſign is a white patriarchial croſs with twelve points ſewed on their breaſt on the left ſide of a black mantle. The order of "*Jeſus Chriſt*," inſtituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always ſovereign of it, and it was deſigned as a mark of diſtinction for the pope's Italian nobility, but on account of its frequent proſtitution, it hath fallen into diſcredit. The order of the "*Golden Spur*" is ſaid, to have been inſtituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the order of Pius, inſtituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are ſuppreſſed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preſerved to themſelves, is the title of counts of the ſacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a ſtar of eight points, white; and between the two bottom points, a ſpur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient hiſtory of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, ſoon experienced the ſame fate with that of Alexander. Under his ſucceſſors it was in a ſhort time entirely diſmembered. His ſon, Lewis le Debonair, ſucceeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandſon of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent iſlands. But Bernard having loſt his life by the cruelty of his uncle, againſt whom he had levied war, and Lewis himſelf dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his ſons, Lothario, Lewis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries ſituated between the Saone and the Rhine; Lewis had Germany; and France fell to the ſhare of Charles, the youngeſt of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great re-united Italy to the Imperial dominions. Italy afterwards ſuffered much by the conteſts between the popes and the emperors; it was harraſſed by wars and internal diviſions; and at length various principalities and ſtates were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany, to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a ſhort time, formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the Father of his Country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his deſcendants, Coſmo, (the great patron of the arts), the title of Great Duke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief to the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain, father of the late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon, king of Hungary, is now grand duke, and Tuſcany has aſſumed a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade; and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts, to prevent the depredations of the Barbary rovers and pirates.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks, eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Scicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions, and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Auſtrian line was ſo oppreſſive, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings, in the year 1647. His ſucceſs was ſo ſurpriſing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be re-eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Auſtrian line opened a new ſource of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke

out

out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, which terminated in a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at firſt demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his acceſſion to the crown of Spain, in 1759, it being found, by the inſpection of phyſicians, and other trials, that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his ſecond ſon being heir apparent to the Spaniſh monarchy, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon, Ferdinand IV. who married an archducheſs of Auſtria.

The Milaneſe, the faireſt portion of Italy, went through ſeveral hands; the Viſcontis were ſucceeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas, but fell at laſt into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the Imperialiſts. They were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the houſe of Auſtria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtalla was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent catholic majeſty, obtained that duchy; and his nephew now holds it, with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. They were more than once brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the confederacies formed againſt them among the other powers of Europe, eſpecially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and ſo late as the year 1715, they loſt the Morea.

The Genoeſe, for ſome time, diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea with the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected, by the French and Imperialiſts. Their doge, or firſt magiſtrate, uſed to be crowned king of Corſica, though it does not clearly appear by what title: that iſland is now ceded to the French by the Genoeſe. The ſucceſsful effort they made in driving the victorious Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in hiſtory, and ſerves to ſhew the effects of deſpair under oppreſſion. At preſent they are poſſeſſed of revenue barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate.

The

The hiſtory of the Papacy is connected with that of Chriſtendom itſelf. The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, andheir eſs to the greateſt part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was ſo well known by the name of Hildebrand.) It is not to be expected that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other cauſes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the Reformation. Even ſince that era the ſtate of Europe has been ſuch, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal princes, who ſeem now to be recovering from their religious deluſions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jeſus, who were not improperly called its Janizaries, has been exterminated in France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but juſt tolerated in other popiſh countries. The pope himſelf is treated by Roman catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reaſonable to believe, will terminate in a total ſeparation from the holy ſee of all its foreign emoluments, which even, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were immenſe, and the reducing his holineſs to the exerciſe of his eccleſiaſtical functions as firſt biſhop of Chriſtendom.

John Angelo Braſchi, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's Dominions are divided into

		Sq. M.
1.	TURKEY IN EUROPE	960,060
2.	TURKEY IN ASIA.	
3.	TURKEY IN AFRICA.	

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 1000	between	17 and 40 eaſt longitude.	158,100.
Breadth 900		36 and 49 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the Eaſt; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the ſame ſea, and the Venetian and Auſtrian territories, on the Weſt.

On

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are the provinces of —	Crim and Little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus *	Precop, Brachiſeria, Kaffa	26,200
	Budziac Tartary	Oczakow -	12,000
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Beſſarabia	Bender -	8,000
		Belgorod	
	Moldavia, olim Dacia	Jazy, Choczim, Falczin	26,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergoviſc -	10,500
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia	Widin, Nicopoli, Siliſtra, Scopia	17,000
	Servia, the weſt part of Myſia - -	Belgrade, Semendria, Niſſa	22,570
	Boſnia, part of the ancient Illyricum -	Seraio -	8,640
On the Boſphorus and Helleſpont - -	Romania, olim Thrace	Conſtantinople, N. L. 41. E. L. 29. Adrianople	21,200
South of Mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Macedonia - -	Strymon, Conteſſa -	18,980
	Theſſaly, now Janua	Saloniçhi, Lariſſa -	4,650
	Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia	Athens, Thebes, Lepanto	3,420
On the Adriatic Sea, or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Epirus	Chimæra -	7,955
	Albania	Burtinto, Scodra, Durazzo -, Dulcigno	6,375
	Dalmatia	Zara - - , Narenza	4,560
	Raguſa republic †	Raguſa - -	430

In

* The Ruſſians in 1783, ſeized on the Crimea, the principal part of this diviſion, and by a treaty ſigned January 9th, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them with the iſle of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.

† The republic of Raguſa, though reckoned by geo-

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
In the Morea, the ancient Peleponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are	Corinthia -	Corinth	7220
	Argos - -	Argos Napoli de Romania	
	Sparta - -	Lacedæmon, now Misitra, on the river Eurotas	
	Olympia, where the Games were held	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus	
	Arcadia	Modon Coron	
	Elis	Partas Elis, or Belvidere, on the river Peneus.	

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey, all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence or uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular, and the climate has been celebrated from the remotest antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated in the world, and at the same time the most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean Sea; the Mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the Muses, is well known. Mount Haemus is likewise often mentioned by the poets; but most of the other mountains have changed their names; witness the mountains Shua, Witoska, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains abovementioned, have modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkish government. It is an aristocratical state, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is styled rector, is changed every month, and elected by scrutiny or lot. During his short administration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragusans are unable to protect themselves, they make use of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand signior. They endeavoured also to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring states. But in the year 1783, a dispute arose between them and the king of Naples, respecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itself under that king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains some handsome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was situated not far from this city. The Ragusans profess the Romish religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almost all the citizens are traders, and they keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in use among the Ragusans is the Sclavonian, but the greatest part of them speak the Italian. They have many trading vessels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, bring constantly at peace with the piratical states of Barbary. The city of Gravosa, and Stagno, 30 miles N. E. of Ragusa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are also five small islands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

SEAS.] The Euxine or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Aſoph; the Sea of Marmora, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia; the Archipelago; the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, are ſo many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Conſtantinople ſtands, of all other countries, had the beſt claim to be miſtreſs of the world.

STRAITS.] Thoſe of the Helleſpont and Boſphorus are joined to the ſea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient hiſtory. The former, viz. the Helleſpont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and an half in breadth, and is famous for the paſſage of Xerxes over it when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition againſt Aſia. Xerxes, for the more eaſy tranſportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is alſo celebrated by the poets in the ſtory of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom the latter ſwam acroſs it to his miſtreſs; but one night was unhappily drowned. The Boſphorus is about the ſame breadth, but has not been ſo much celebrated by hiſtorians and poets.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Neiper, and the Don, are the beſt known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and hiſtorians.

LAKES.] Theſe are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applauſe, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Scutari, lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, ſo famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx iſſues, conceived by the ancients to be the paſſage into hell.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all ſorts of mines, and its marbles are eſteemed the fineſt in the world.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe are excellent all over the European Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of induſtry. Beſides pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Beſides theſe, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Theſſalian or Turkiſh horſes, are excellent both for their beauty and ſervice. The black cattle are large, eſpecially in Greece. The goats are a moſt valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and fleſh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furniſh the beſt feathers for arrows for the Turkiſh archers, and they ſell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe; but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river and every fountain of Greece preſents the traveller with celebrated antiquities. On the iſthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Iſthmian games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. Athens, which contains at preſent above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful ſource of the moſt magnificent ruins in the world, a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work; but it will be proper to mention ſome of the moſt conſiderable. Among the antiquities of this once ſuperb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompaſſed with forty-ſix fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and ſeven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with baſſo-relievos, admirably executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athenians. To the ſouth-eaſt of the Acropolis, a citadel

which

which defends the town, are ſeventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and baſes. Juſt without the city ſtands the temple of Theſeus, ſurrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order: the portico at the weſt end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in baſſo-relievo; that at the eaſt end appears to be a continuation of the ſame hiſtory; and on the outſide of the porticos, in the ſpaces between the triglyphs, are repreſented the exploits of Theſeus. On the ſouth-weſt of Athens is a beautiful ſtructure, commonly called the Lantern of Demoſthenes: this is a ſmall round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and an half high; in the ſpace between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the reſemblance of ſcales; and on the frieze are beautifully repreſented in relievo the labours of Hercules. Here are alſo to be ſeen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympius, and Auguſtus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the ſouth ſide of mount Parnaſſus; and the marble ſteps that deſcend to pleaſant running water, ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with the niches for ſtatues in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadia, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninſula which extends into the Ægean ſea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in length and three in breadth: but it is only a ſingle mountain that is properly called Athos. This is ſo lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the ſun-riſing was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitants of the coaſt; and, at the ſolſtice, its ſhade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which iſland was diſtant eighty-ſeven miles eaſtward. There were twenty-two convents on mount Athos, beſides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no leſs than ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty; the other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells. Theſe Greek monks, who call themſelves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are ſo far from being a ſet of ſlothful people, that, beſides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They alſo live a very auſtere life; their uſual food, inſtead of fleſh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheeſe, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts are many and ſevere; which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders longevity ſo common there, that many of them live above an hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the ſummit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long-life: whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philoſtratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philoſophers uſed to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtleſs built their cells.

CITIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated on the European ſide of the Boſphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations,

was the greateſt as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the Eaſt Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the cruſaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. "O what a vaſt city is Conſtantinople! (exclaims one when he firſt beheld it), and how beautiful! How many monaſteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufacturers are there in the city amazing to behold! It would be aſtoniſhing to relate how it abounds with all the good things, with gold, ſilver, and ſtuffs of various kinds; for every hour ſhips arrive in the port with all things neceſſary for the uſe of man." Conſtantinople is at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its ſituation and its port. The proſpect from it is noble. The moſt regular part is the Beſeſtin, incloſed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their ſhops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong ſquare of 400 paces by 200, where they exercíſe on horſeback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large ſpacious ſquare, the general reſort of all ranks. On the oppoſite ſide of the port are four towns, but conſidered as a part of the ſuburbs, their diſtance being ſo ſmall, a perſon may eaſily be heard on the other ſide. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera, the foreign ambaſſadors and all the Franks or ſtrangers reſide, not being permitted to live in the city; Galata alſo is moſtly inhabited by Franks and Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities: the tomb of Conſtantine the Great is ſtill preſerved. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed in grandeur of architecture St. Peter's at Rome. It is very advantageouſly ſituated in the fineſt part of Conſtantinople, upon an eminence, with a gradual deſcent to the ſea. It is of a long ſquare form, about 100 paces in length, and 80 in breadth, but in the inſide it is round. A portico, or piazza, about 36 feet in breadth, ſupported by marble pillars, extends the whole length of the front. This communicates with the body of the church by nine folding-doors of braſs, the middlemoſt of which has ſome remains of Moſaic work and paintings, which are almoſt entirely defaced by the Turks. This portico is joined to another which has five brazen doors. The body of the church is almoſt covered by a cupola of admirable ſtructure, at the foot of which runs a colonnade ſupporting a gallery of nine yards broad, formerly ſet apart for the women. Over this run two baluſtrades, juſt broad enough for one perſon to paſs; which, in the time of their Ramaſan, or Lent, are adorned with lamps, and make a fine appearance. The dome is 34 yards from ſide to ſide, and reſts upon four vaſt pillars, at leaſt 15 yards in circumference. It is a perfect hemiſphere, illuminated by 24 windows placed at equal diſtances from one another. In the inſide are upwards of 100 pillars of various kinds of marble, ſome of which are porphyry, and others Egyptian granite. The whole dome, and indeed all the walls, are curiouſly lined with marble, and the incruſtations of the gallery are Moſaic, generally done with ſmall glaſs cubes, which are continually looſened from their cement, but the colours are unchangeable. The Turks have added four minarets, or tall ſlender ſteeples, ſomewhat reſembling the monument in London, and terminating in ſpires, with gilded creſcents on the top.

The city is built in a triangular form, with the ſeraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not to be equalled. When we ſpeak of the ſeraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand ſignior's women are confined, as is com-

commonly imagined, but the whole incloſure of the Ottoman palace, which might well ſuffice for a moderate town. The wall which ſurrounds the Seraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embraſures, and towers, in the ſtyle of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public tranſactions and records. The town is ſurrounded by a high and thick wall with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but ſhallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land-ſide. The beſt authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are ſaid to be Greeks and Armenians, and the reſt are Jews and Turks. Others ſuppoſe the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000. The city hath been frequently aſſailed by fires, either owing to the narrowneſs of the ſtreets and the ſtructure of the houſes, or the arts of the Janizaries. In Auguſt, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter ſituated towards the harbour, and ſpread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houſes (moſt of which had been rebuilt ſince the fire in 1782) were conſumed.

Oppoſite to the ſeraglio, on the Aſian ſide, and about a mile and a half diſtant acroſs the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal moſque, and a pleaſure-houſe of the grand ſignior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand proſpect: in one view are the cities of Conſtantinople, Galata, and Pera, the ſmall ſeas of the Boſphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each ſhore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, theſe ſeveral heads depending on the ſame principles all over the empire, ſhall be mentioned under TURKEY in ASIA.

CRIM-TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, is the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus, and is a peninſula, lying on the Euxine or Black Sea, by which it is bounded on the Weſt and South, and on the Eaſt and North Eaſt, by that of Aſoph. It is between 44 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and 34 and 37 degrees of eaſt longitude.

This Peninſula was eſteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Ruſſia in conſequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly thoſe of Kherſon, Theodoſia, Panticapeum, and ſome others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities, on the continent. It is probable, however, that the modern towns of this country are not ſituated exactly in the ſame places with thoſe built by the Greeks. Eupatoria, now Koſleo, is but at a ſmall diſtance from the ſeat of the ancient Eupatorium, if not exactly in the ſame ſpot; and Sebaſtool ſtands but a very little way from the Kherſon of the Greeks; the ruins of which laſt are ſtill extant. Strabo mentions a place, named Portus Symbolon, which is probably the ſame with that named *Symbol*, by the Genoeſe, and in more modern times *Balylava*; Janikale is the Panticapeum of the ancients; and Theodoſia, lately called Kaffa, has now received its ancient appellation of Theodoſia again.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in the Crimea are thoſe of Karaſu and Salagir, both which, taking an eaſterly courſe, and uniting their ſtreams, at the diſtance of more than 20 werſts from the ſea, run into the gulf of the ſea of Aſoph, which is interpoſed between the main land of Crimea, and a long narrow peninſula.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very ſlight deſcriptions; and indeed where the country has been ſo often the ſeat of war, and the inhabitants are ſtill ſo rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven

ven, who, without doubt, had acceſs to the beſt lodgings in the country, informs us, that " a Tartar's houſe is a very ſlight building of only one ſtory, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cuſhions are ranged round the room for ſeats; but what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the ſpace of the room behind the wainſcoat, which draws back in moſt places; ſo that in a place where the room appears exceedingly ſmall and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with. A Tartar houſe has always another building, at a ſmall diſtance from it, for the convenience of ſtrangers or travellers, whom the noble Tartar always treats with the greateſt hoſpitality. The palace of the khan at Bacziſeria is an irregular building; the greateſt part of it is of one floor, raiſed upon pillars of wood, arched and gilt in a fanciful and lively manner; the arch, or laſt door-way, is finely proportioned, and is adorned with an inſcription in letters of gold. The whole was entirely in ruins, but the governor cauſed it to be repaired, and new gilt and painted for the reception of the empreſs. Court within court, and garden within garden, make a variety of apartments, where the khan walked from his own reſidence to the haram, which is ſpacious, and higher than the reſt of the buildings. Several of the ſquare places under his apartment were paved with marble, and have in the centre fountains which play conſtantly.

Among the curioſities in this country, we may reckon the ſource of the river Karaſu, which is ſituated among rocks, in a very romantic manner, and riſes in a conſiderable ſtream. It was viſited by Lady Craven in 1786. No leſs wonderful are thoſe lakes which receive the rivulets, without any viſible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a houſe, near Sebaſtopool, ſituated in a very romantic manner, at the foot of ſome works, from which iſſue many clear ſprings that amply ſupply the houſes and baths with water. On the ſummit of theſe rocks, there are places where immenſe cables have certainly paſſed and been tied. The Tartars inſiſt that the ſea was once cloſe to the foot of them, and ſhips were faſtened there. Near Bacziſeria there is a mine of earth, exactly like ſoap, which is reckoned very good for the ſkin, and vaſt quantities of it are conſumed by the women at Conſtantinople. Lady Craven beſtows the greateſt encomiums on the ſheep, which in this peninſula are innumerable, and afford the moſt beautiful and coſtly fleeces. The ſheep are all ſpotted; the lambkins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their ſkins have ſmall ſpots, and are ſmooth like the fineſt and lighteſt ſattins. Coats lined with theſe ſkins are called Peliſſes; and as a great number of theſe ſmall animals muſt be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the fineſt preſents the empreſs can make to an ambaſſador. Throughout the whole of this peninſula, there are many ruins of ancient towns. Lady Craven mentions one at Soudak, which was rebuilt by the Genoeſe on the deſcent of ſteep rocks. The ſummit of theſe overlooks the ſea; and here there is a chapel, with a granite pillar, ſituated in ſuch a manner that on the firſt ſhake it muſt fall perpendicularly into it.

The peninſula of the Crimea has a conſiderable trade in what is called Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like ſattin. At Bacziſeria there is a great trade of ſword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſuch as are made at Damaſcus.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO TURKEY IN EUROPE, BEING PART OF ANCIENT GREECE.

I Shall mention theſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as are converſant with ancient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed a part.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and lies on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad, and contains about 1300 ſquare miles. Here the Turkiſh gallies lie. The tides on its coaſts are irregular; and the iſland itſelf is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in ſuch abundance, that all kinds of proviſions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the iſland are, Negropont, called by the Greeks, Egripos, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland, on the narroweſt part of the ſtrait; and Caſtel Roſſo, the ancient Caraiſtus.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies in the northern part of the Ægean ſea or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches ariſe from its mineral earth, much uſed in medicine, ſometimes called *terra Lemnia*, or *ſigillata*, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks, who receive from it a conſiderable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying oppoſite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity; it hath a town of the ſame name.

SCYROS is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MYTELENE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philoſophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This iſland, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and above 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches beſides chapels and monaſteries; and a Turkiſh garriſon of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of ſilk, velvet, gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The iſland likewiſe produces oil and ſilk, and the lentiſk-tree, or maſtic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almoſt all the other Greek iſlands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their perſons have been the moſt perfect models of ſymmetry to painters and ſtatuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, ſays, "The beautiful Greek girls are the moſt ſtriking ornaments of Scio. Many of theſe were ſitting at the doors and windows, twiſting cotton or ſilk, or employed in ſpinning and needle-work, and accoſted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome, as we paſſed. The ſtreets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear ſhort petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white ſilk or cotton hoſe. Their head-dreſs, which is peculiar to the iſland, is a kind of turban, the linen ſo white and thin, it ſeemed ſnow. Their ſlippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them faſtened with a thong. Their

garments were of ſilk of various colours; and their whole appearance ſo fantaſtic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a ſeparate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and hiſtorians ſaid to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and ſhew a little ſquare houſe, which they call Homer's ſchool.

SAMOS lies oppoſite to Epheſus, on the coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, about ſeven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This iſland gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Chriſtians, who are well treated by the Turks, their maſters. The muſcadine Samian wine is in high requeſt; and the iſland alſo produces wool, which they ſell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and ſilk. This iſland is ſuppoſed to have been the native country of Juno; and ſome travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the fineſt remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the ſouth of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but ſo barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an iſland. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the iſland ſhew a cave where St. John is ſuppoſed to have written the Apocalypſe.

The CYCLADES iſlands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is ſouth of the iſlands Mycone and Tirſe, and almoſt midway between the continents of Aſia and Europe. Though Delos is not above ſix miles in circumference, it is one of the moſt celebrated of all the Grecian iſlands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whoſe temples are ſtill viſible. This iſland is almoſt deſtitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the iſlands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek iſlands, it contains the moſt ſtriking and magnificient ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteneſs of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHERA, lies ſouth-eaſt of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, aud chiefly remarkable for being the favourite reſidence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the moſt ſouthern iſlands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Caliſta, and afterwards Thera. Though ſeemingly covered with pumice-ſtones, yet, through the induſtry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with ſome wheat. One third of the people are of the Latin church, and ſubject to a popiſh biſhop. Near this iſland another aroſe of the ſame name, from the bottom of the ſea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with moſt dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the ſea for ſeveral days, ſo that when it roſe out of the ſea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning ſoon ceaſed. It is about 200 feet above the ſea; and at the time of its firſt emerging, was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has ſince increaſed. * Several other iſlands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original, although the ſea in their neighbourhood is ſo deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous iſland of RHODES is ſituated in the 28th degree of eaſt longitude, and 36 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles ſouth-weſt of the continent

nent of Leſſer Aſia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This iſland is healthful and pleaſant, abounds in wine, and many of the neceſſaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town of the ſame name, ſtands on the ſide of a hill fronting the ſea, and is three miles in circumference, interſperſed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the Grand Signior's principal arſenal for ſhipping, and the place is eſteemed among the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the Turks. The coloſſus of braſs which anciently ſtood at the mouth of the harbour, was 50 fathom wide, and deſervedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each ſide of the harbour, ſhips paſſing between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-houſe for the direction of mariners. The face of the coloſſus repreſented the ſun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this iſland were formerly maſters of the ſea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Juruſalem, after loſing Paleſtine, took this iſland from the Turks in 1308, but loſt it to them in 1522 after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is ſtill renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, the ſeat of legiſlature to all Greece, and many other hiſtorical and political diſtinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and 60 broad, almoſt equally diſtant from Europe, Aſia, and Africa, and contains 3220 ſquare miles. The famous Mount Ida ſtands in the middle of the iſland, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid ſtream. Some of the vallies of this iſland produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their kinds. The ſiege of Candia, the capital of the iſland, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks inveſted it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garriſon, after bravely defending itſelf againſt 56 ſtorms, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at laſt, an honourable capitulation. The ſiege coſt the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant ſea, about 30 miles diſtant from the coaſt of Syria and Paleſtine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almoſt an equal diſtance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worſhip of Venus, the Cyprian goddeſs; and, during the time of the Cruſades, was a rich flouriſhing kingdom, inhabited by Chriſtians. Its wine, eſpecially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the moſt palatable and the richeſt of any that grows in the Greek iſlands. Ticoſia is the capital, in the midſt of the country, and the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop; indeed moſt part of the inhabitants of the iſlands are Greeks. Famaguſta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the iſland is ſo rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping conſuls reſiding upon it; but the oppreſſions of the Turks have depopulated and impoveriſhed it to ſuch a ſurpriſing degree, that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250l. a year. The iſland produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made, and alſo cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, ſilk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their anceſtors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, is one of the diviſions of the iſland. Richard I. king of England, ſubdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from whence it paſſed to the Venetians, who ſtill hold that empty honour.

The iſlands in the Ionian ſea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and others of ſmaller note, particularly ISOLA DEL COMPARE, which would not deſerve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes. Theſe iſlands in general are fruitful and belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the ſame name, and is a place of conſiderable trade, eſpecially in currants *, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, ſtrong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garriſon of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the iſland of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, moſtly Greeks, and friendly to ſtrangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that iſland, and the reſidence of the governor-general over all the other iſlands, is a place of great ſtrength, and its circumference about four miles. The Venetians are ſaid to concern themſelves very little about the welfare or government of theſe iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is eſtimated at 50,000, and their manners more ſevere than at Zante.

ASIA.

AS Aſia exceeds Europe and Africa in extent of territory, it is alſo ſuperior to them in ſerenity of air, fertility of ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the fragrancy and balſamic qualities of its plants, ſpices, and gums; the ſalubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richneſs of its metals, and the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons. It was in Aſia, according to the ſacred records, that the all-wiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the firſt man and firſt woman, from whom the race of mankind was to ſpring. Aſia became again the nurſery of the world after the deluge, whence the deſcendants of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Aſia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious goſpel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his diſciples and followers. Here the firſt Chriſtian churches were founded, and the Chriſtian faith miraculouſly propagated and cheriſhed even with the blood of innumerable matyrs. It was in Aſia that the firſt edifices were reared, and the firſt empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all theſe accounts, this quarter claims a ſuperiority over the reſt; but it muſt be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath loſt much of its ancient ſplendour. The other parts of Aſia continue much in their former condition, the ſoil being as remarkable for its fertility, as moſt of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in ſome meaſure heightened by cuſtom and education; and the ſymptoms of it are more or leſs viſible, as the ſeveral nations are ſeated nearer or farther from the North. Hence

* So called from a corruption of Corinth, from whence the vines were originally imported.

the

the Tartars, who live near the ſame latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, ſtrong, and vigorous, as any Euaopean nation. What is wanting in the robuſt frame of their bodies among the Chineſe, Mogul Indians, and all the inhabitants of the more ſouthern regions, is in a great meaſure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt ſkilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed in paſt times by the Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were ſcarcely known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or as they are uſually called, Saracens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries poſſeſſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains at preſent three large empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſſer kingdoms and ſovereignties depend. The prevailing form of government in this diviſion of the globe is abſolute monarchy. If any of them can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Hali, and the Turks of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic Iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſt of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and ſufferings of popiſh miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing in a great meaſure to their own avarice, and the cruelty and injuſtice of the Europeans, who reſort thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo ſpoken upon the coaſts of India and China.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between 25 and 180 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary: and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the weſt it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the ſea of Marmora, the Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the rivy Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, which ſeparates it from America: and on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt

furrounded by the ſea. The principal regions which divide this country follow:

	Nations.	Length.	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Diſt. and bear. from London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions.
Tartary.	Ruſſian	The bounds of theſe parts are unlimited, each power puſhing on his conqueſts as far as he can		3,050,000	Tobolſk	2160 N. E.	4 10 bef.	Chriſt. & Pag.
	Chineſe			644,000	Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	Mogulean			185,350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	Independent			600,060	Samarcand, and Laſſa	2800 E. 4310	4 36 bef.	Pagans
	China	1440	1000	1,105,000	Peking	4320 S. E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
	Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
	India beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,500	Siam, Pegu	5040 S. E.	6 44 bef.	Mah. & Pag.
Turkey in Aſia.	Perſia	1300	1100	800,000	Iſpahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahometans.
	Part of Arabia	1300	1200	700,000	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Mahometans.
	Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Chriſt. & Mah.
	Holy Land	210	90	7,600	Jeruſalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Chriſt. & Mah.
	Natolia	750	390	195,000	Burſa or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Mahometans.
	Diarbeck or Meſopotamia	240	210	27,600	Diarbeck	2060 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans, with ſome few Chriſtians.
	Irac, or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240	2 13 bef.	
	Turcomania, or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.	
	Georgia *	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
	Curdiſtan, or Aſſyria	210	205	23,900	Scherazer	2220 E.	3 00 bef.	Mahometans.

All the iſlands of Aſia (except Cyprus, already deſcribed, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eaſtern Ocean, and the Indian Seas, of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have ſettlements, are

Iſlands.	Towns.	Sq. M.	Trade with or belong to.
The Japaneſe iſles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch
The Ladrones	Guam		Spain
Formoſa	Tai-ouan-fou	17,000	China
Anian	Kionteheow	11,900	China
The Philippines	Manilla	133,700	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove iſles	VictoriaFort, Ternate		Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg iſles	Lantor		Dutch
Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. (furrounding the Molucca and Banda iſles)	Amboyna	400	Dutch
	Macaſſer	68,400	Dutch
	Gilolo	10,400	Dutch
The Sunda iſles: Borneo	Borneo, Caytongee	228,000	All nations
The Sunda iſles: Sumatra	Achen, Bencoolen	129,000	Engliſh and Dutch
The Sunda iſles: Java, &c.	Batavia, Bantam	38,250	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar iſles	Andaman, Nicobar		All nations
Ceylon	Candy	27,730	Dutch
The Maldives	Caridon		All nations
Bombay	Bombay		Engliſh
The Kurile iſles, and thoſe in the ſea of Kamſcatka, lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians.			Ruſſia

* Georgia hath lately claimed independence, and put itſelf under the protection of Ruſſia.

TURKEY

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1000 Breadth 800	between	27 and 46 east longitude. 28 and 45 north latitude.	520,820.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circaſſia, on the North; by Perſia, on the Eaſt; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, and Propontis, which ſeparate it from Europe, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
The eaſtern provinces are	1. Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea	Baſſora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec or Meſopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, and Mouſul.
	3. Curdiſtan or Aſſyria	Nineveh and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circaſſia	Teflis, Amarchia, and Gonie.
Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the weſt.	1. Natolia Proper	Burſa, Nici, Smyrna, and Epheſus.
	2. Amaſia	Amaſia, Trapeſond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania	Satalia and Teraſſo.
Eaſt of the Levant Sea.	Syria, with Paleſtine, or the Holy Land	Aleppo, Antioch, Damaſcus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jeruſalem.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are famous in ſacred as well as profane writings. The moſt remarkable are, Olympus; Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucaſus and Ararat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The ſame may be obſerved of the rivers, which are the Euphrates; Tigris; Orontes; Meander; Sarabat; Kara; and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful, and naturally ſalubrious to the human conſtitution, yet ſuch is the equality with which the Author of nature has diſpenſed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Aſia, is often viſited by the plague; a frightful ſcourge of mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly deſtructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their ſuperſtitious belief in that kind of predeſtination which prevents them from uſing the proper precautions to defend themſelves againſt this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the moſt fertile provinces of Aſia, I need ſcarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmoſt abundance, notwithſtanding the indolence of its owners. Raw ſilk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every ſpecies, coffee, myrrh, frankincenſe, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almoſt without culture, which is practiſed chiefly by Greek and Armenian Chriſtians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in theſe provinces, are highly delicious, and in

in ſuch plenty, that they coſt the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is ſaid, in ſome places nothing. Their aſparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed thoſe of other countries in largeneſs. In ſhort, nature has brought all her productions here to the higheſt perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. The ſame may be ſaid of their animals. The breed of the Turkiſh and Arabian horſes, the latter eſpecially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to theſe countries, but they contain all that are neceſſary for the uſe of mankind. Camels are here in much requeſt, from their ſtrength, their agility, and above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camels hair and ſilk, though it is now often made with wool and ſilk. Their kids and ſheep are exquiſite eating, and are ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe; but their butchers meat in general, beef particularly, is not ſo fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vaſt perfection: their oſtriches are well known by their tallneſs, ſwiftneſs in running, and ſtupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fiſh, except lampreys, mullets, and oyſters, but thoſe that were found in Aſia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces in Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the beſt geographers been able to aſcertain it, becauſe of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various cauſes, and above all to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reaſons, and particularly becauſe the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation. Yet, after all, the ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire are computed at 49,000,000.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are ſometimes handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypochondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive: in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though the generality ſeem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of ſocial affections for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are with the generality ſpeedily diſſolved. The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their

great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes; where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own or any other country. If a viſier, baſhaw, or other officer, is turned out or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion than that there will be a new viſier or governor, ſeldom enquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeable converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may commonly be bought and ſold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they ſup at five in the winter, and ſix in the ſummer, and ſupper is their principal meal. Among the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high-ſeaſoned. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is highly-ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſations reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of higher rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate and ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; though in private many of them indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors. Their common ſalutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breaſt. They ſleep in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diverſion. The moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe when they conform themſelves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependents. Within doors, the cheſs or draught-board are the uſual amuſements and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they ſleep. Their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtband, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their ſtockings; and inſtead of ſhoes they wear ſlippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or houſe. They ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads with horns ſomething like a mitre, and wear the

their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are ſo muffled up as not to be known by their neareſt relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no uſe of paint to heighten their beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make uſe of the ſame expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negociated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, beſides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of ſeraglio of women; but all theſe indulgences are ſometimes inſufficient to gratify their unnatural deſires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpſe is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (for ſo they call their temples), they are buried in a field by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral ſermon at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a huſband they wear a particular head-dreſs, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet, the author of it; ſome account of which the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Turks profeſs to be of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit into as many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ordination among their clergy; any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt, or mufti, enjoys great power in the ſtate.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS OF CHRISTIANS.] The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of goverment. Conſtantinople, Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege has its archbiſhop or biſhop. All male Chriſtians pay alſo a capitation tax from ſeventeen years old to ſixty, according to their ſtations.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which ſeems to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but ſtill bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic and the Syriac, a dialect of which is ſtill ſpoken. A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows in their Paternoſter.

Pater hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous: hagiaſthito to onoma ſou: na erti he baſilia ſou: to thelema ſou na genetez itzon en te ge, os is ton ouranon: to ptſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren: kæ ſi choraſe hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, kæ hemas ſichoraſomen ekinous opou: mas adikounkæ men ternes hemais is to piraſmo, alla ſoſon hemas apo to kaxo. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks till of late profeſſed a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, numerous bands of Chriſtian biſhops,

biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity. The education of the Turks ſeldom extends farther than reading the Turkiſh language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them underſtand aſtronomy ſo far as to calculate the time of an eclipſe; but the number of theſe being very ſmall, they are looked upon as extraordinary perſons.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Theſe are ſo various, that they have furniſhed matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Theſe countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and ſculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate, in which they ſtand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more diſfigured than thoſe which remain in ruins. Amidſt ſuch a plenitude of curioſities, all that can be done here is to ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking.

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damaſcus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo Syria. Its remains of antiquity diſplay, according to the beſt judges, the boldeſt plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpreſſibly ſuperb, though diſfigured by two Turkiſh towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. Their walls were adorned with Corinthian pilaſters and ſtatues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the ſame taſte and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now ſo ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, ſupported only by nine lofty columns, each conſiſting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of thoſe pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the ſordid Turks are daily at work to deſtroy the columns, for the ſake of the iron. A ſmall temple is ſtill ſtanding, with a pedeſtal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expreſſing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the weſt of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but diſfigured with Turkiſh moſques and houſes. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and ſtupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of theſe immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia aſcribe them to Solomon, but ſome make them ſo modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his ſucceſſors may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the ſtupendous execution of the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a period before the Chriſtian æra, but without mounting to the ancient times of the Jews or the Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek ſtyle in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at preſent a little city, encompaſſed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houſes built out of the ancient ruins. A free-ſtone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; and one of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our meaſure, is 1135 tons. A coarſe white marble quarry, at a greater diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Deſert, is ſituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about 33 deg. N. lat. and 200 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the acceſs to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, publiſhed by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, viſited it ſome years ago, purpoſely to preſerve ſome remembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them, eſpecially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, periſtyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the higheſt ſtyle, and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but ſo diſperſed and disjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Theſe ſtriking ruins are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of a ſandy deſert. Nothing, however, is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the weſtern nations, for the merchandiſes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the more fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſtory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony; and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for ſome time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her ſecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it muſt be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its ancient ſplendour, but without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been obſerved very juſtly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boaſted antiquities ſhewn by the Greek and Armenian prieſts in and near Jeruſalem, which is well known to have been ſo often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no ſcene of our Saviour's life and ſufferings can be aſcertained; and yet thoſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſt by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. They are, it is true, under ſevere contributions to the Turks, but the trade

ſtill goes on, though much diminiſhed in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the Great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different diviſions, and the diſpoſitions made round it, are chiefly calculated to ſupport the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches, built by the ſame lady, are found in Paleſtine; but the country is ſo altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the moſt deſpicable of any in Aſia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any veſtiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, it will in time become a deſert. Thus oppreſſion ſoon thinned the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece, and Aſia the Leſs, once the glory of the world, are now nearly deſtitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a ſorry appearance, though erected on the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſtor was buried; ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. I ſhall not amuſe the reader with any accounts of the ſpot which is ſaid to have formed Paradiſe, and to have been ſituated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are ſome tracts which undoubtedly deſerve that name. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be fouud in thoſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders. It is indeed eaſy to pronounce whether the ſtyle of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but all other information muſt come from their inſcriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Iſmir) contains many valuable antiquities. The ſame may be ſaid of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical obſervations. The ſite of Old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its being oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Milaſſo in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm; and ſome travellers think that they diſcern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Epheſus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. } Theſe are very numerous, and at the ſame time very inſignificant, becauſe they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon ſtands upon the ſite of Old Alexandria, but it is now almoſt depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, holds a reſpectable rank among the cities of the Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſtill the capital of Syria, and is ſuperior in its buildings and conveniences to moſt of the Turkiſh cities. Its houſes, as uſual in the Eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a dead wall to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain, of the ſame, in the middle. Aleppo and its ſuburbs are ſeven miles in compaſs, ſtanding on eight ſmall hills, on the higheſt top of which the citadel or caſtle is erected, but of no great ſtrength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, ſurround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Chriſtians, and 5000 are Jews. It

is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniencies of life, except good water, within the walls, and even that is ſupplied by an aqueduct, diſtant about four miles, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. The ſtreets are narrow, but well paved with large ſquare ſtones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and piſtachio trees; but the country round it rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſineſs in caravanſeras, or large ſquare buildings, containing their warehouſes, lodging-rooms, and compting-houſes. The city abounds in neat, and ſome of them magnificient moſques, public bagnios, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched or covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of the Eaſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their ſweatmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater ſplendour and ſafety than in any other city of the Turkiſh empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not uſed here, but perſons of quality ride on horſe-back with a number of ſervants before them, according to their rank. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls, who are much reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh eſpecially, with marks of diſtinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to ſleep in the open air, here, over all Arabia, and many other parts of the Eaſt, for which reaſon their houſes are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance thoſe nations had with aſtronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains ſome parts of the holy ſcripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkiſh cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is ſuppoſed, from the ſite of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular ſquare, and rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its ſituation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and it has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans. The houſes of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer circulation of the air: many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glaſs, and the ceiling ornamented with chequered work. Moſt of the houſes have alſo a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a ſmall plantation of orange trees. The number of houſes is computed at 80,000, each of which pay an annual tribute to the Baſhaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. ſterling. Their bazars, in which the tradeſmen have their ſhops, are tolerably handſome, large, and extenſive, filled with ſhops of all kinds of merchandize, to the number of 12,000. Theſe were erected by the Perſians, when they were in poſſeſſion of the place, as were alſo their bagnios, and almoſt every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five moſques, two of which are well built, and have handſome domes, covered with varniſhed tiles of different colours. Two chapels are permitted for thoſe of the Romiſh and Greek perſuaſions. On the north-weſt corner of the city ſtands the caſtle, which is of white ſtone, and commands the river, conſiſting of curtins and baſtions; on which ſome large cannon are mounted, with two mortars on each baſtion; but in the year 1779, they had become, through neglect, altogether unſerviceable. Below the caſtle, by the water-ſide, is the palace of the Turkiſh governor; and there are ſeveral ſummer-

houſes

houſes on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Aſſyria is now called the Turkiſh Curdiſtan, though part of it is ſubject to the Perſians. The capital is Curdiſtan; the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdiſtan is ſaid to be for the moſt part cut out of a mountain, and is the reſidence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edeſſa, is the capital of the fine province of Meſopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly ſupported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mouſul is alſo in the ſame province, a large place, ſituated on the weſtern ſhore of the Tigris, oppoſite to where Nineveh formerly ſtood.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, now no longer ſubject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Chriſtians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handſome city, and makes a fine appearance, its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, by the ſide of the river Kur, and is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, except on the ſide of the river. It has a large fortreſs on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garriſon conſiſts of native Perſians. There are fourteen churches in Teflis, ſix of which belong to the Georgians, and the reſt to the Armenians: the Mahometants who are here, have no moſques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleaſant houſes, and fine gardens. The Georgians are ſaid, by ſome travellers, to be the handſomeſt people in the world; and ſome think that they owe their beauty to the long uſe of inoculation for the ſmall-pox. They make no ſcruple of ſelling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many diſtinguiſhing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Ruſſia, and claimed its protection.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain part of their former trade. Damaſcus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpreſſibly beautiful. It contains a fine moſque, which was formerly a Chriſtian church. It is ſtill famous for its ſteel works, ſuch as ſword-blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture alſo thoſe beautiful ſilks called Damaſks, from their city, and carry on a conſiderable traffick in raw and worked ſilk, roſe-water extracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city ſeems highly beautiful, eſpecially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens.

Sidon, now Said, which likewiſe lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour. The town is ſurrounded with a ſtone wall, a citadel on the land ſide, and another towards the ſea. The houſes are built chiefly of ſtone, and are two ſtories high. The inhabitants are about 16,000, chiefly Chriſtians, of the Greek church, and the place is the ſeat of a biſhop of that perſuaſion. There are in the town two public baths, and two moſques. It ſtands on a neck of land over againſt Tyre, and both form a bay of about 16 miles in breadth.

Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by ſcarcely any but a few fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are ſtrong walls on the land ſide, of ſtone, 18 feet high, and ſeven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half; and Chriſtians and Mahometans make the number of 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are ſtill viſible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us that he ſaw, and obſerves that they were $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet lower than the ground upon which the preſent city ſtands.

Paſſing by Tyre (ſays our author, who deſerves much praiſe for ſome happy elucidations

cidations of ſcripture) I came to be a mournful witneſs of the truth of that prophecy, That Tyre, the queen of Nations, ſhould be a rock for fiſhers to dry their nets on *. Two wretched fiſhermen, with miſerable nets, having juſt given over their occupation with very little ſucceſs, I engaged them, at the expence of their nets, to drag in thoſe places where they ſaid ſhell-fiſh might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple-fiſh. I did not ſucceed, but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fiſhers had ever been. The purple fiſh at Tyre ſeems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fiſh for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing elſe but fiſhing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year †.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amaſia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of ancient cities are ſtill diſcernible; and ſo luxuriant is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. The ſelfiſh Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themſelves; and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up the circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population. Even Paleſtine or Judea, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of them all, lies buried under the luxuries of its own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting Judea in the moſt dreadful colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians ‡.

Under the government of Sheik Daher, the ally of the famous Ali Bey, ſome part of Paleſtine revived. He enlarged the buildings and walls of St. John de Acre, formerly Ptolemais, and ſhewed great indulgence to the Chriſtians. Its inhabitants were lately computed at 40,000. Caifa, which ſtands on the declivity of mount Carmel, diſtant about 20 miles from Acre, was alſo new built and enlarged by Daher. The ancient Joppa, now Jaffa, 50 miles weſt from Jeruſalem, ſtands on a rocky hill, hath an harbour for ſmall veſſels, and its circumference is about two miles. The number of inhabitants is 7000; the weſtern part of the town is inhabited by Chriſtians. The preſent ſtate of Ramah is deplorable, its walls in decay, and moſt of the houſes empty, though the number of inhabitants is ſtill between 3 and 4000. Not a houſe is ſtanding of the once magnificent city of Ceſarea, but the remains of the walls teſtify its former grandeur. Azotus is about two miles in circumference, the inhabitants are near 3000, and moſtly Mahometans; an old ſtructure is ſhewn here, with fine marble pillars,

* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.

† Bruce's Travels vol. I. Introduction, p. lix.

‡ The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy to make juſt obſervations, ſays, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing conſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, ſays he, of which ſome authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine, ſays Mr. Wood, "we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, ac- "companied by an armed friend, to prevent his "being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, he who ſows is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

which is ſaid to be the houſe that Sampſon pulled down, when inſulted by the Philiſtines. Gaza is ſtill reſpectable; it extends from eaſt to weſt three miles, and is a mile in breadth, divided into the old and new town. The laſt is inhabited by the inferior Turks and Arabs: the number of inhabitants is reckoned to be 26,000. It is about five miles from the ſea, and without the walls is a market for the country people to diſpoſe of their commodities to the inhabitants, for they are not permitted to enter the town. The country around is very fertile, in corn, oil, wine, honey, bees-wax, flax, and cotton.

Whether thoſe countries of Aſia could ever be reſtored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a queſtion with ſome; but I apprehend that it would now be impoſſible (let the Turkiſh government be ever ſo beneficent) to divert commerce (without which all attempts of that kind muſt be feeble) from its European channels. There can, however, be no queſtion, that a government leſs brutal and bigoted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themſelves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other ſects of Chriſtians there, partake but too much of the Turkiſh ſtupidity. Though they are not ſuffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horſeback, and are ſubjected to a thouſand indignities and miſeries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppreſſors, yet ſo abject is their ſpirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance. If they are leſs indolent than their oppreſſors, it is becauſe they muſt otherwiſe ſtarve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, leſt it ſhould be diſcovered to their tyrants, who would conſider it as their own.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little attended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of their government deſtroys that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, induſtry, and commerce; and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind, when borne down by tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantages of commere, which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the ſouthern ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey muſt admire the ſituation of their capital, upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe from Aſia, and communicates on the ſouth with the Mediterranean ſea, thereby opening a paſſage to all the European nations as well as the coaſts of Africa. The ſame ſtrait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a paſſage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commodities neceſſary for the largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and ſoap. The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſilk, a variety of drugs, and dying ſtuffs, they generally export, without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffick with Europe the Turks are altogether paſſive. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, reſort thither with their commodities, and bring back thoſe of Turkey in the ſame bottoms. They ſeldom attempt any diſtant voyage, and are poſſeſſed of only a few coaſting veſſels in the Aſiatic Turkey; their chief royal navy lying on the ſide of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their government. The balance of power eſtabliſhed among the princes of Europe, and their jealouſies of

of one another, ſecure to the Infidels the poſſeſſion of countries, which in the hands of the Ruſſians, or any active ſtate, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, eſpecially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkiſh government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of ſir James Porter, who reſided at the Porte in quality of ambaſſador from his Britannic majeſty, it appears that the rigours of that deſpotic government are conſiderably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconſiderable expence. Even Jews and Chriſtians may in this manner ſecure the enjoyment of their lands to the lateſt poſterity; and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no inſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to treſpaſs or reverſe it. Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution altogether depend on the ſuperſtition of the ſultan; he knows that an attempt to violate it would ſhake the foundation of his throne, which is ſolely ſupported by the laws of religion. Were he to treſpaſs theſe laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceaſes to be the lawful ſovereign. The ſame obſervation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was deſigned by Mahomet both as a political code and as a religious ſyſtem. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to ſupport them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments upon this book, which explain the law where it is obſcure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the firſt inſtitutions of the prophet; and no member of the ſociety, however powerful, can trangreſs them without cenſure, or violate them without puniſhment.

The Aſiatic Turks, or rather ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire, who hold their poſſeſſions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their ſerving in the field with a particular number of men, think themſelves, while they perform that agreement, almoſt independent of his majeſty, who ſeldom calls for the head, or the eſtate of a ſubject, who is not an immediate ſervant of the court. The moſt unhappy ſubjects of the Turkiſh government, are thoſe who attain the higheſt dignities of ſtate, and whoſe fortunes are conſtantly expoſed to ſudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their maſter. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the grand viſir, or prime miniſter; the chiaya, ſecond in power to the vizir; the reis effendi, or ſecretary of ſtate; and the aga of the janizaries, are the moſt conſiderable. Theſe, as well as the mufti, or high prieſt, the baſhaws, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raiſed, by their application and aſſiduity, from the meaneſt ſtations in life, and are often the children of Tartars, or Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war. Tutored in the ſchool of adverſity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thouſand difficulties and dangers, theſe men are generally as diſtinguiſhed for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, intrigue, and corruption which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank; and they have a farther reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe they are uncertain how long they may enjoy the dignities to which they have attained. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire muſt be immenſe. According to Baron de Tot, the revenues eſtimated on the records amount to 25,400,000l. but produce effectively only 3,200,000l. to the public

treaſury. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Chriſtians and other ſubjects, not of the Mahometan religion; the rich pay a capitation tax of 30 ſhillings a year; tradeſmen 15 ſhillings, and common labourers 6 ſhillings and 10 pence half-penny. Another branch of the revenue ariſes from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All theſe, however, are trifling, when compared with the vaſt ſums extorted by the governors of provinces, and officers of ſtate, under the name of *preſents*. Theſe harpies, to indemnify themſelves, as we have already obſerved, exerciſe every ſpecies of oppreſſion that their avarice can ſuggeſt, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are ſent to govern, their riches frequently give riſe to a pretended ſuſpicion of diſloyalty or miſconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is ſeldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accuſers; but, without giving him the leaſt opportunity of making a defence, an officer is diſpatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy baſhaw receives it with the higheſt reſpect, and after he has read it, ſays, *The will of God and the emperor be done*, or ſome ſuch expreſſion, teſtifying his entire reſignation. Then he takes the ſilken cord, which the officer has in his boſom, and having tied it about his neck, and ſaid a ſhort prayer, the officer's ſervants throw him on the floor, and drawing the cord ſtrait, ſoon diſpatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkiſh empire is of two ſorts: the firſt has certain lands appointed for its maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treaſury. Thoſe that have certain lands amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Beſides theſe, there are alſo certain auxiliary forces raiſed by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and, till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their reſpective princes. The Kan of the Crim Tartars, before his country was ſubjected to Ruſſia, was obliged to furniſh 100,000 men and ſerve in perſon, when the grand-ſignior took the field. In every war, beſides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of ſucceeding the officers. Theſe adventurers not only promiſe themſelves an eſtate if they ſurvive, but are taught, that if they die in the war againſt the Chriſtians, they ſhall go immediately to paradiſe. The forces which receive their pay from the treaſury, are called the Spahis, or horſe-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh armies, amounting to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Conſtantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the ſultan. They are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up to the exerciſe of arms from their infancy; and there are no leſs than 100,000 foot-ſoldiers, ſcattered over every province of the empire, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being ſubject to no juriſdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are ſwelled with all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. He is ſtyled by his ſubjects, *the Shadow of God, a God on Earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Diſpoſer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand-ſignior's arms are, vert, a creſcent argent, creſted with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are deſigned for the ſtate, the army, or the navy; but they are ſeldom pre-

ferred till about 40 years of age, and they riſe by their merit. They are generally the children of Chriſtian parents, either taken in war, purchaſed, or preſents from the viceroys and governors of diſtant provinces, the moſt beautiful, well made, and ſprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand-ſignior, before they are ſent to the colleges or ſeminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius and abilities.

The ladies of the ſeraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly ſent as preſents from the provinces and the Greek iſlands, moſt of them the children of Chriſtian parents. The brave prince Heraclius hath for ſome years paſt aboliſhed the infamous tribute of children of both ſexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch or ſultan. Selim had 2000. Achmet had but 300, and the preſent ſultan hath nearly 1600. On their admiſſion they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to ſew and embroider, muſic, dancing, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt cloaths and ornaments. They all ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptreſs. Their chief governeſs is called *Katon Kiaga*, or governeſs of the noble young ladies. There is not one ſervant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the laſt that is entered ſerves her who preceded her. Theſe ladies are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand-ſignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are incloſed with latices and linen curtains; and when they go by land they are put in cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. The boats of the harem, which carry the grand-ſignior's wives, are manned with 24 rowers, and have white covered tilts, ſhut alternately by Venetian blinds. Among the emperor's attendants, are a number of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns with great quickneſs, and ſome dwarfs who are exhibited for the diverſion of his majeſtey.

When he permits the women to walk in the garden of the ſeraglio, all people are ordered to retire, and on every ſide there is a guard of black eunuchs, with ſabres in their hands, while others go their rounds in order to hinder any perſon from ſeeing them. If unfortunately any one is found in the garden, even through ignorance or inadvertence, he is undoubtedly killed, and his head brought to the feet of the grand-ſignior, who gives a great reward to the guard for their vigilance. Sometimes the grand-ſignior paſſes into the gardens to amuſe himſelf, when the women are there: and it is then that they make uſe of their utmoſt efforts, by dancing, ſinging, ſeducing geſtures, and amorous blandiſhments, to enſnare the affections of the monarch. It is not permitted that the monarch ſhould take a virgin to his bed except during the ſolemn feſtivals, and on occaſion of ſome extraordinary rejoicings, or the arrival of ſome good news. Upon ſuch occaſions, if the ſultan chooſes a new companion to his bed, he enters into the apartment of the women, who are ranged in files by the governeſſes, to whom he ſpeaks, and intimates the perſon he likes beſt: the ceremony of the handkerchief, which the grand-ſignior is ſaid to throw to the girl that he elects, is an idle tale. As ſoon as the grand-ſignior has choſen the girl that he has deſtined to be the partner of his bed, all the others follow her to the bath, waſhing and perfuming her, and dreſſing her ſuperbly, conducting her, ſinging, dancing, and rejoicing, to the bed-chamber of the grand-ſignior, who is generally, on ſuch an occaſion, already in bed. No ſooner has the new-elected favourite entered the chamber, introduced by the grand eunuch who is upon guard, than ſhe kneels down, and when the ſultan calls her, ſhe creeps into bed to him at the foot of the bed, if the ſultan does not order her, by eſpecial grace, to approach by the ſide: after a certain time, upon a ſignal given

given by the ſultan, the governeſs of the girls, with all her ſuite, enter the apartment, and take her back again, conducting her with the ſame ceremony to the women's apartments; and if by good fortune ſhe becomes pregnant, and is delivered of a boy, ſhe is called *aſaki ſultaneſs*, that is to ſay, ſultaneſs-mother; for the firſt ſon, ſhe has the honour to be crowned, and ſhe has the liberty of forming her court, as before mentioned. Eunuchs are alſo aſſigned for her guard, and for her particular ſervice. No other ladies, though delivered of boys, are either crowned or maintained with ſuch coſtly diſtinction as the firſt: however, they have their ſervice apart, and handſome appointments. After the death of the ſultan, the mothers of the male children are ſhut up in the old ſeraglio, from whence they can never come out any more, unleſs any of their ſons aſcend the throne. Baron de Tott informs us, that the female ſlave who becomes the mother of a ſultan, and lives long enough to ſee her ſon mount the throne, is the only woman who, at that period alone, acquires the diſtinction of *Sultana Mother*: ſhe is till then in the interior of her priſon, with her ſon. The title of *Bache Kadun*, principal woman, is the firſt dignity of the grand-ſignior's harem, and ſhe hath a larger allowance than thoſe who have the title of ſecond, third, and fourth woman, which are the four free women the Koran allows.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vaſt country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name ſignifies *Wanderers*, extended its conqueſts under various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian to the ſtraits of the Dardanelles. Being long reſident in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom about the year 1037, and ſpread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were ſometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine; and the viſiting the Holy City of Jeruſalem, being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous Cruſades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than of the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were poſſeſſed of any real power for maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1299, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed themſelves, under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia, of Nice, and Pruſa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital: from Othman they took the name of Othmans, the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original, wanderers, or baniſhed men, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach. Othman was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357, they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a

footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of Janizaries was eſtabliſhed. Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was juſt then returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himſelf taken priſoner, and ſhut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, by declaring war againſt one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſiege, Mahomet II. took Conſtantinople in 1453. Thus, after an exiſtence of ten centuries, from its firſt commencement under Conſtantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreſeen, and was owing to many cauſes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themſelves, their courts, and families; the diſlike their ſubjects had to the popes, and the weſtern church, one of their patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romiſh legate, "that he would rather ſee a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Conſtantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conqueſt, did not exterminate, but reduce the nations to ſubjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, particularly in Conſtantinople, and the neighbouring iſlands; where, though under grievous oppreſſions, they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patriarchs of Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem. The Armenians have only three patriarchs, who are richer than thoſe of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer and more converſant in trade. It is ſaid that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkiſh government, ſtill preſerve ſomewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors.

The conqueſt of Conſtantinople was followed by the ſubmiſſion of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was ſucceeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Perſians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harraſſed by family diſſenſions, and at laſt, by order of his ſecond ſon, Selim, he was poiſoned by a Jew phyſician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldeſt brother Achmet to be ſtrangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Perſians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Perſia, he turned his arms againſt Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was ſucceeded, in 1520, by his ſon, Soliman the Magnificent; who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Chriſtian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that iſland to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and, two years afterwards, advanced into Auſtria and beſieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V.: he miſcarried alſo

in an attempt to take the iſle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus, from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors. He was ſucceeded, in 1575, by his ſon Amurath III. who forced the Perſians to cede Taurus, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important fortreſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, was ſucceeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. He was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his ſucceſſor Achmet was beaten by the Perſians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent that he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a prince of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being unſucceſsful againſt the Poles, was put to death by the janizaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. ſucceeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Perſians. His brother Ibrahim ſucceeded him in 1640; a worthleſs, inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janizaries, in 1648. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well ſerved by his grand vizir Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged for 30 years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000. A bloody war ſucceeded between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, in which the latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his brother Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet II. but Muſtapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in perſon; after ſome briſk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialiſts and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave ſhelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Ruſſians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Ruſſian army was ſurrounded without hopes of eſcape, the Czarina inclined the grand-vizir to peace by a preſent of all the money, plate, and jewels that were in the army; but the Ruſſians delivered up to the Turks, Aſoph, Kaminieck, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. Achmet afterwards made war on the Venetians, which alarmed all the Chriſtian powers. The ſcene of action was tranſlated to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave ſo many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a diſgraceful peace, at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Perſians, under Kouli Khan, ſucceeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and ſecretary, which were accordingly ſtruck off; but the ſultan alſo was depoſed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unſucceſsful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at laſt obliged to recogniſe that uſurper as king of Perſia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; againſt the former he was victorious; but the ſucceſſes of the latter, which threatened Conſtantinople itſelf, forced him

to

to agree to a haſty treaty with the emperor, and after that another with the Ruſſians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Oſman II. who died in 1757, and was ſucceeded by his brother, Muſtapha III. who died on the 21ſt of January, 1774, whilſt engaged in an unſucceſsful war with the Ruſſians, of which ſome account has been already given in the hiſtory of that country. In the courſe of this war, a conſiderable Ruſſian fleet was fitted out, which ſet ſail from the Baltic, with a view of ſhaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February 1770, and ſhaped its courſe for the Morea. Count Orlow having debarked ſuch land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the weſtward of cape Metapan, and about 50 miles to the ſouth-weſt of Miſitra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, the deſcendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who ſtill poſſeſſed the country of their anceſtors, under ſubjection to the grand-ſignior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Ruſſians by thouſands, from their averſion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear the arrival of the Ruſſians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea ſeemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Miſitra, Arcadia, and ſeveral other places, as ſpeedily taken; while the Ruſſian ſhips, that had been ſeparated, or that put into Italy, arrived ſucceſſively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every ſmall detachment ſoon ſwelled to a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time the Greeks gave the utmoſt looſe to their revenge, and every where ſlaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants on the continent were ſeized, extended itſelf to the iſlands, where alſo the Turks were maſſacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head againſt the Ruſſians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within their fortreſſes. The malcontents had ſo much increaſed ſince the firſt debarkation of the Ruſſians, that they inveſted Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the caſtle of Patras, with ſeveral other places of leſs note But whilſt they were employed in theſe enterprizes, an army of thirty thouſand men, compoſed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraſkier, baſha of Boſnia. This Turkiſh general recovered all the northern part of the peninſula, as ſoon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were inſtantly put to death. The Ruſſians were now driven back to their ſhips; but about the ſame time another Ruſſian ſquadron, commanded by admiral Elphinſton, arrived from England, to reinforce count Orlow's armament. The Turkiſh fleet alſo appeared, and an obſtinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that iſland from Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia. The Turkiſh fleet was conſiderably ſuperior in force, conſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, from ſixty to ninety guns, beſides a number of chebeques and gallies, amounting in the whole to near thirty ſail; the Ruſſians had only ten ſhips of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ſhips engaged with great reſolution, whilſt others on both ſides found various cauſes for not approaching ſufficiently near. But Spiritof, a Ruſſian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultane of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they both fought with the greateſt fury, and at length run ſo cloſe, that they locked themſelves together with grappling irons and other tackling. In this ſituation, the Ruſſians, by throwing hand-granades from the tops, ſet the Turkiſh ſhip on fire, and as they could not now be diſentangled, both ſhips were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumſtanced, without a poſſibility of ſuccour, they both at length blew up with a

moſt terrible exploſion. The commanders and principal officers on both ſides were moſtly ſaved; but the crews were almoſt totally loſt. The dreadful fate of theſe ſhips, as well as the danger to thoſe that were near them, produced a kind of pauſe on both ſides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night, without any material advantage on either ſide. When it became dark, the Turkiſh fleet cut their cables, and run into a bay on the coaſt of Natolia: the Ruſſians ſurrounded them thus cloſely pent up, and in the night ſome fire-ſhips were ſucceſsfully conveyed among the Turkiſh fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Engliſhman in the Ruſſian ſervice, who, though abandoned by his crew, himſelf directed the operations of the fire-ſhips. The fire took place ſo effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few gallies that were towed off by the Ruſſians, was totally deſtroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a caſtle that protected it, with ſuch ſucceſs, that a ſhot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbiſh. Thus was there ſcarcely a veſtige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a caſtle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in exiſtence at one the ſame morning.

Some of the principal military tranſactions by land, in the war between Ruſſia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we ſhall here only add, that, after a moſt unfortunate war on the ſide of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Ruſſians, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, a few months after the acceſſion of the preſent grand-ſignior Achmet IV. The late emperor, Muſtapha III. left a ſon, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government, in the then critical ſituation of the Turkiſh affairs, Muſtapha appointed his brother, the preſent emperor, to ſucceed him in the throne: and to this prince, under the ſtrongeſt terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant ſon.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic armies, and the implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than any excellency in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which have rendered their empire ſo formidable. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitution of the janizaries, a corps originally compoſed of the children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of their officers in the Seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000, long deemed invincible: and they ſtill continue the flower of the Turkiſh armies; but the Ottoman power has been long on the decline. The political ſtate of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, is now the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why the fineſt provinces in the world are ſuffered to remain in the poſſeſſion of theſe ignorant and haughty infidels.

Abdul Hamed, or Achmet IV. grand-ſignior, born 1710, ſucceeded to the throne of Turkey, 21ſt January, 1774, on the death of his brother; he hath three ſons and three daughters.

TAR-

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 4000	between	50 and 150 east longitude.
Breadth 2400		30 and 72 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to desire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and situation of these vast regions. Even the empress of Russia and her ministry are ignorant of her precise limits with the Chinese, the Persians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fullest extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, on the East; by China, India, Persia, and the Caspian Sea, on the South; and by Muscovy, on the West.

Grand Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
North-east division	Kamtschatka Tartars	Kamtschatka	
	Jakutskoi Tartars	Jakutskoi	
South-east division	Bratski	Bratski	985,380
	Thibet and Mogul Tartars	Thibet	
		Polon	
		Kudak	
North-west division	Samoieda	Mangasia	
	Ostiak	Kortskoi	
South-west division	Circassian and Astrachan Tartary	Terki	
		Astrachan	
Middle division	Siberia	Tobolsk	
	Kalmuck Tartary	Bokharia	850,000
	Usbeck Tartary	Samarcand	339,840

Kamtschatza is a great peninsula, which extends from North to South about seven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four districts, Bolcheresk, Tigilskaia Krepost, Verchnei or Upper Kamtschatkoi Ostrog, and Nishnei or Lower Kamtscatkoi Ostrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucasus in Circassia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat so contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the same mountain, which crosses all Asia, from Mongrelia to the Indies, and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS.] These are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caspian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a course of two thousand miles; the Oby, which divides Asia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Genesa or Jenska; the Burrumpooter, the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Russian and Chinese empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is very different, by reason of its vast extent from north to south; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the southern being in the same latitudes with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova

Nova Zembla, and Ruſſian Lapland, are moſt uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſſes. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholeſome; and Mr. Tooke obſerves, that its inhabitants in all probability would live to an extreme old age, if they were not ſo much addicted to the abuſe of ſpirituous liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almoſt to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radiſhes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well: but ſcarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit trees to bear, have hitherto proved vain: but there is reaſon to believe that induſtry and patience may at length overcome the rudeneſs of the climate. Currants and ſtrawberries of ſeveral ſorts are ſaid to grow here in as great perfection as in the Engliſh gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia. Aſtrachan, and the ſouthern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. Their ſummers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is peſtered, and the ſoil ſometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locuſts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile countries, the graſs growing ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the higheſt in Aſia, and forms a portion of that elevated region, which gives riſe to the rivers of India and China, and thoſe of Siberia and other parts of Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid that Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazuli, and loadſtones; a ſort of large teeth found here creates ſome diſpute among the naturaliſts, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimſical and curious, when poliſhed with art and ſkill.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtrachan there is a bird called by the Ruſſians *baba*, of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on ſeeing a ſhoal or fry of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drives them to a ſhallow where he gobbles as many of them as he can put into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The foreſts of Siberia are well ſtocked with a variety of animals, ſome of which are not to be found in other countries. Theſe ſupply the inhabitants with food and cloaths; and, at the ſame time, furniſh them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be conſidered as the native country of black foxes, ſables, and ermines, the ſkins of which are ſuperior to thoſe of any part of the world. Horſes and cattle are in great plenty, and ſold at low prices.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] The populouſneſs of Tartary is far from being proportional to its extent. The inhabitants are, in general, ſtrong made, ſtout men; their faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but very quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots.

The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a ſtaple commodity; for parents make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters to recruit the ſeraglios, or rather *harems*, of

the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed, when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale.

According to Mr. Bruce, the Circaſſian women are extremely well ſhaped, with exceeding fine features, ſmooth clear complexions, and beautiful black eyes, which with their black hair hanging in two treſſes, one on each ſide the face, give them a moſt lovely appearance: they wear a black coif on their heads, covered with a fine white cloth tied under the chin. During the ſummer they all wear only a ſmock of divers colours, open ſo low before, that one may ſee below their navels: this, with their beautiful faces always uncovered, (contrary to the cuſtom of moſt of the other provinces in thoſe parts), their good humour and lively freedom in converſation, contributes to render them very deſirable: they have the reputation of being very chaſte, although it is an eſtabliſhed point of good manners among them, that as ſoon as any perſon comes to ſpeak to the wife, the huſband goes out of the houſe: but whether their continency proceeds from their own generoſity, to recompence the confidence of their huſbands, or has its foundation only in fame, I pretend not to determine. Their language they have in common with the other neighbouring Tartars, although the chief people among them are alſo not ignorant of the Ruſſian; the apparel of the men of Circaſſia is much the ſame with that of the Nagayans, only their caps are ſomething larger, and their cloaks being likewiſe of coarſe cloth or ſheep-ſkins, are faſtened only at the neck with a ſtring, and as they are not large enough to cover the whole body, they turn them round according to the wind and weather.

The Tartars are in general great wanderers; in their peregrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Ruſſian. Among themſelves they are ſocial, and extremely hoſpitable to ſtrangers and travellers, who confidentially put themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy chearful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by care or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the northern and independent Tartars and ſome nations of Canada in North America; particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a ſmall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ſome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch occaſions they ſay they do their parents a good office, in ſending them to a better world. Notwithſtanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, eſpecially towards the ſouth, are tractable, humane, and ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hiſtory tells us, that Darius, king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an ambaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for anſwer, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle; but when once he was come to the place of their fathers' monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight."

The

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſeldom appear on foot. They are dextrous in ſhooting at a mark, inſomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will ſplit a pole with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The dreſs of the men is very ſimple, and fit for action; it generally conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves made of deer ſkin, having the fur outward; trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoke, and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward, to the Japaneſe ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itſelf under ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable are they in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other, ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabins extremely nauſeous. Though horſe-fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been ſmoked and dried. The Tartars purchaſe their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes the wife's ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After a wife is turned of forty ſhe is employed in menial duties as another ſervant, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wife who ſucceeds to her place; nor is it uncommon, in ſome of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The deſcendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are ſtill moſt of them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nations, entirely differing from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by ſome Tartar tribes, chiefly by thoſe converted to Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increaſed ſince it became a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have founded therein a number of towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtanding which it preſents but a void and deſert view; ſince, by its extent, it is capable of ſupporting ſeveral millions more than it at preſent contains. For the manners and cuſtoms of the other Tartars belonging to the Ruſſian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars is variouſly modified by that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Popiſh religions. Some of them are the groſſeſt idolaters, and worſhip little rude images dreſſed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom he makes very free when matters do not go according to his mind.

The Circaſſians are Pagans, for, notwithſtanding they uſe circumciſion, they have neither prieſt, alcoran, or moſque, like other Mahometans. Every body here offers his own ſacrifice at pleaſure, for which, however, he has certain days, eſtabliſhed, rather by cuſtom than any poſitive command: their moſt ſolemn ſacrifice is offered at the death of their neareſt friends, upon which occaſion both men and women meet in the field to be preſent at the offering, which is a he-goat; and having killed it, they flay it, and ſtretch the ſkin with the head and horns on, upon a croſs at the top of a long pole, placed commonly in a quickſet hedge, (to keep the cattle from it), and near the place the ſacrifice is offered by boiling and roaſting the fleſh, which they afterwards eat. When the feaſt is over, the men riſe, and having paid their adoration to the ſkin, and muttering certain prayers, the women withdraw, and the men conclude the ceremony with drinking a great quantity of vitæ, and often with a quarrel.

But the religion and government of the kingdon of Thibet, and Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are moſt worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Delai Lama, who is not only ſubmitted to, and adored by them, but is alſo the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vaſt tract of continent which ſtretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Korea on the ſea of Japan. He is not only the ſovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth: but, as ſuperſtition is ever the ſtrongeſt where it is moſt removed from its object, the more remote Tartars abſolutely regard him as the Deity himſelf. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worſhip and make rich offerings at his ſhrine: even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgements to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to the emperor, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of thoſe who are reputed the moſt orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama ſeems to die, either of old age or infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again in the body of ſome child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas or prieſts, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been diſcovered ſome time before by the Tayoſhoo Lama, who in authority and ſanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The lamas, who form the moſt numerous, as well as the moſt powerful body in the ſtate, have the prieſthood entirely in their hands; and, beſides, fill up many monaſtic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a mountain near the banks of the Burampooter, about ſeven miles from Laſſa. The Engliſh Eaſt India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774 *. The religion of Thibet, though in many reſpects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and alſo highly reſpect the waters of the Ganges, the ſource of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniaſſes, or Indian pilgrims, often viſit Thibet as an holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Beſides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is poſſeſſed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extenſive, and ſtretch to Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamaniſm. The profeſſors of this religious ſect believe in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorius in his ſight. But they alſo maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the deſtiny of men, among a great number of ſubaltern divinities, under his command and controul, but who nevertheleſs generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot diſpenſe with uſing all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewiſe ſuppoſe, that, for the moſt part, theſe inferior deities abominate and puniſh premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly perſuaded of a future exiſtence; but they have many ſuperſtitious notions and prac-

* The fort of Dellamcotta, which commanded the principal paſs through the ridge of the Bootan mountains, was taken by ſtorm by captain Jones in 1773, and the fame of this exploit made the Thibetians ſue for peace.

tices,

tices. Among all the Schamanes, women are conſidered as beings vaſtly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their ſenſual pleaſure, to people the world, and to look after houſehold affairs: and in conſequence of theſe principles, they are treated with much ſeverity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurpriſed to find this article in ſpeaking of Tartars; yet nothing is more certain than that, under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Aſtrachan and the neighbouring countries were the ſeats of learning and politeneſs, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever ſo ſplendid, falls ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture are ſtill extant, but in ſpots ſo deſolate that they are almoſt inacceſſible. The encouragement of learning was the firſt care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perſian and Arabic tongues; and their hiſtories, many of which are ſtill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ſtrongeſt marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] Theſe are comprehended in the remains of the buildings left by the above mentioned great conquerors and their ſucceſſors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either ſurrounded ſmall towns, now quite demoliſhed, or defended camps, forts, or caſtles, the veſtiges of which are often to be diſcovered. The ſlabode, or Tartarian ſuburb of Kaſimof, on the Oha, ſeems to have been the reſidence of ſome khan. In the midſt of the ruins of that city is a round and elevated tower, called in their language *Miſquir*, a ſort of temple. Here are alſo the remains of the walls of a palace; and in one of the maſarets, or burial places, is a very conſiderable mauſoleum, all which edifices are built of hewn ſtone and bricks. From an Arabic inſcription we learn, that the khan Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the hegira, or the 1520th of the Chriſtian æra. Near Mount Caucaſus are ſtill very conſiderable remains of Madſchar, a celebrated city of former times. Near Derbent are numerous tombs covered with cylindrical ſtones, exceeding the uſual ſtature of men, with Arabic inſcriptions. In the environs of Aſtrachan the ruins of ancient Aſtrachan are very viſible; and the rubbiſh and ramparts of another reſpectable town ſtill exiſts near Tzaritzin, on the left ſhore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itſelf into the above mentioned river, are many ſuperb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, conſiſting of towers, moſques, houſes, and ſepulchres, all built of ſtone or brick. The oldeſt epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the moſt modern at leaſt four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tſcheremtſcham, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins ſomewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are thoſe of Boulymer, an ancient and very conſiderable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the ſmall town of Bilyairſk.

In the fortreſs of Kaſan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are ſo broad, that they ſerve at preſent for ramparts: the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn ſtone. Aſcending the river Kaſanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the ſtrong ramparts of the old Kaſan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inſcriptions, and ſeveral ſepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are ſtill ſeen about Tobolſk upon the Irtiſch. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratſchik. Not to mention the great number of other cities and ruins of Siberia; and eſpecially all thoſe that are to be met with in the deſert of Kirguis, which abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and ſilver coins have likewiſe been found, with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterſburg. In 1720, ſays M. Voltaire, in his Hiſtory of Peter the Great, there were found in Kalmuc Tartary a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome

urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equeſtrian ſtatue, an Oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones, and a roll of manuſcripts, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. About 80 miles from Laſſa is the lake Palte, or Jangſo; of ſuch extent, according to the natives, that it requires 18 days to walk round it. In the middle of it are iſlands, one of which is the ſeat of the *Lamiſſa Turcopama*, or the *great regenerate*, in whom the Thibetians think a divine ſpirit inhabits as in the Great Lama.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of theſe we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be ſaid to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence againſt an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding diviſions of this country, merit notice. Tobolſk and Aſtrachan are conſiderable cities; the firſt containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns have alſo been lately erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Ruſſian government.

Teki, the capital of Circaſſian Tartary, is ſeated in a ſpacious plain on an iſland formed by the rivers Terki and Buſtrow, and is garriſoned by 2000 regulars, and 1000 Coſſacks. It is well fortified with ramparts and baſtions in the modern ſtyle, well ſtored with cannon, and has always a conſiderable garriſon in it, under the command of a governor. The Circaſſian prince who reſides here, is allowed five hundred Ruſſians for his guard, but none of his own ſubjects are permitted to dwell within any part of the fortifications. Ever ſince the reduction of thoſe parts to the obedience of Ruſſia, they have put in all places of ſtrength, not only Ruſſian garriſons and governors, but magiſtrates, and prieſts for the exerciſe of the Chriſtian religion; yet the Circaſſian Tartars are governed by their own princes, lords, and judges, but theſe adminiſter juſtice in the name of the empreſs, and in matters of importance, not without the preſence of the Ruſſian governors, being all obliged to take the oath of allegiance to her Imperial majeſty.

Tarku is the capital of Dageſtan, and contains 3000 houſes, two ſtories high, platformed at top for walking. The Tartars of this province are numerous, and Mahometans, governed by a ſhefkal, whoſe office is elective. The city of Derbent is ſituated on the Caſpian ſhore, and called the frontier of Perſia. It is ſaid to have been firſt built by Alexander the Great, and that he here received the viſit from the Amazonian queen Thaleſtris. It is now incloſed with a broad ſtrong wall, built with large ſquare ſtones, hard as marble, from the quarries in Caucaſus. Laſſa is a ſmall city, but the houſes are of ſtone, and are ſpacious and lofty.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the hiſtory of Tartary, their chief traffick conſiſting in cattle, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtrachans, notwithſtanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export leather, woollen and linen cloth, and ſome European manufactures.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers who, under various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the two above-mentioned conquerors and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than

than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite reſidence of Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world. The former, about the year 1200 made himſelf maſter of thoſe regions, which form at this day the Aſiatic part of the Ruſſian empire; and his ſon Batou Sagin conquered Southern Ruſſia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blendid with the Ruſſians. Long and heavily did the Tartar yoke gall the neck of Ruſſia, till alleviated by diviſions among the conquerors. But not till the time of Ivan III. who aſcended the Ruſſian throne in 1462, were the Ruſſians delivered from theſe warlike invaders. He repeatedly defeated them, ſubdued the kingdom of Kaſan and other provinces, and made his name reſpected in all that quarter.

Tamerlane's memory hath been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan, whoſe defeat of the Turkiſh emperor Bajazet hath been before noticed in the hiſtory of that nation. His deſcent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indoſtan himſelf. The capital of this country is Bokaria, which was known to the anients by the name of Bucharia; ſituated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles diſtant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great, who died in the year 1405.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and herds in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, inveſted with a paramount power over ſtrangers as well as natives, and whoſe forces often amount to 100,000 horſemen. His chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation, which is moved and ſhifted according to the chance of war and other occaſions.

Beſides what may be learned from their hiſtory and traditions, the ſtandard or colours of the reſpective tribes form a diſtinctive mark, whereby each Tartar knows the tribe to which he belongs. Theſe marks of diſtinction conſiſt of a piece of Chineſe linen, or other coloured ſtuff, ſuſpended on a lance, twelve feet in length, among the Pagan Tartars. The Mahometan Tartars write upon their ſtandards the name of *God*, in the Arabic language. The Kalmucs and the Mogul Tartars diſtinguiſh theirs by the name of ſome animal; and as all the branches, or diviſions of a tribe preſerve the figure drawn upon the ſtandard of that tribe, adding only the particular denomination of each branch, thoſe ſtandards anſwer the purpoſe of a genealogical table or tree, by which each individual knows his origin and deſcent.

They are bounded on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the Mogul, the Perſian, and the Turkiſh empires; each of whom are puſhing on their conqueſts in this extenſive, and in ſome places, fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependency to one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency; and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe, as we ſhall mention in our account of that empire. The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of ſubſiſtence; while the Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450, Breadth 1260	between	20 and 42 north latitude. 98 and 123 east longitude.	1,105,100
To which ſhould be added Chineſe Tartary.			644,000

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by the Chineſe Tartary, and an amazing ſtone wall, of five hundred leagues in length, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the Eaſt; by the Chineſian Sea, South; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Ruſſia, on the Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] The great diviſion of this empire, according to the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, and the abbé Groſier, in his general Deſcription of China, is into fifteen provinces (excluſive of that of Lyau-tong, which is ſituated without the Great Wall, though under the ſame dominion); each of which might, for their largeneſs, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, paſs for ſo many diſtinct kingdoms. We have the following account of the diviſion of this kingdom from the beſt authority. It will be of uſe in conſulting the map.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Pe-tcheli	Pekin
Kiang-nan	Kiang-ning-fou
Kiang-ſi	Nan-tchang-fou
Fo-kien	Fou-tcheou-fou
Tehe-kiang	Hang-tcheou-fou
Hou-quang	Vou-tchang-fou
Ho-nan	Cai-fong-ſou
Chang-tong	Tſi-nan-fou
Chan-ſi	Tai-yuen-fou
Chenſi	Si-ngan-fou
Se-tchuen	Tching-tou-fou
Quang-tong	Canton
Quang-ſi	Quei-ling-fou
Yun-nan	Yionan-fou
Koei-Teheou	Koei-Yang

States tributary to China.

Corea
Ton king
Cochin China
Thibet
The country of Ha-mie
The iſles of Lieou-kieou

CHINESE TARTARY.

This is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the eaſt by the Gulf of Kamtſchatka and the eaſtern ſea; on the ſouth by China; and on the weſt by the country of the Kalmouks, who are eſtabliſhed between the Caſpian ſea, and Caſghar.

EASTERN CHINESE TARTARY.

Extends north and ſouth from the 41ſt to the 55th degree of north latitude, and eaſt and weſt from about the 137th degree of longitude to the eaſtern ſea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the ſouth by the Gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the eaſt by the eaſtern ſea; and on the weſt by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Chen-yang	Mougdon
Kirin	Kirin
Tritcicar	Fritcicar

But

But it is neceſſary to acquaint the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jeſuits, and other monks ſent hither by the pope, but whoſe miſſions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of thoſe fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of information; but their accounts of this empire are juſtly to be ſuſpected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and ſucceſſes, as well as the importance of the Chineſe empire. If their accounts are to be received with much caution, much more are thoſe of ſucceeding travellers, who have it ſcarce in their power to enter the empire farther, than what is abſolutely neceſſary for the purpoſes of trade. On account of this want of information, therefore, which is acknowledged even by Mr. Groſier, the lateſt writer on the ſubject, we muſt be much more brief in our deſcription of this celebrated empire, than otherwiſe we would wiſh to be.

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chineſe word, ſignifying *Middle*, from a notion entertained by the natives that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, except to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary; the Croceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River; and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and in ſome places boiled to make it fit for uſe.

BAYS.] The chief are thoſe of Nanking and Canton.

CANALS.] Theſe are ſufficient to entitle the ancient Chineſe to the character of the moſt induſtrious people in the world. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes extend above 1000 miles in length. That is a moſt celebrated canal which extends from Canton as far as Peking, and which forms a communication between all the ſouthern and northern provinces. This work, which is called *The Royal Canal*, is ſix hundred leagues in length; and its navigation is no where interrupted but by the mountain *Meiling*, where paſſengers are obliged to travel ten or twelve leagues over land. In this principal canal many others end, which ſtretch out into the country, and form a communication between the neighbouring cities, towns, and villages. The greater part of thoſe private canals have been executed by the induſtry of the inhabitants of theſe cities and towns, who have ſpared neither labor nor expence to preſerve an eaſy conveyance of their goods into all the provinces of the empire. The veſſels which navigate theſe canals are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life; and it has been thought by ſome, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Theſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, renders China delightful to the eye, as well as fertile, in places naturally barren and diſagreeable.

FORESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not encumbered with foreſts, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow but for ornament or uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the ſituation

of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the middle mild, and in the ſouth hot. All travellers agree in their accounts of the fertility of China, and of the extent and beauty of its plains. Neither incloſures, hedges, nor ditches are ſeen in them; ſcarcely even is there found a ſingle tree: ſo careful is the Chineſe huſbandman not to loſe the ſmalleſt portion of his land. The plains of the northern provinces produce wheat, thoſe of the ſouth, rice, becauſe the country is low, and covered with water. In ſeveral provinces there are two crops in a year; and even in the interval between the harveſts, the people ſow ſeveral kinds of pulſe, and other ſmall grain. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is extremely ingenious. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, muſt be mentioned.

The *cotton-tree*, the produce of which forms one of the moſt conſiderable branches of the commerce of China, is cultivated with ſucceſs in the ſouthern provinces. Even on the very day that the labourers have reaped their grain, they ſow cotton in the ſame field, after having turned up the earth ſlightly with a rake. When the rain or dew has moiſtened the ground, a ſhrub is ſeen inſenſibly ſpringing up, which riſes to the height of two feet. The flowers appear about the beginning, or towards the middle of Auguſt. They are generally yellow; but ſometimes red. To the flower ſucceeds a button, which increaſes in the form of a pod, till it acquires the ſize of a walnut. The fortieth day after the flower has appeared, this pod burſts, divides itſelf into three parts, and diſcovers three or four ſmall cotton balls of a bright white colour, the figure of which is almoſt like that of thoſe produced by ſilk-worms. Theſe ſmall downy balls, when freed from the ſeeds by an ingenious proceſs of the Chineſe, is then carded and ſpun; and afterwards made into cloth.

The *tallow-tree* has a ſhort trunk, a ſmooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil ſerves the natives as candles; but for want of purifying, as we purify tallow in Europe, it ſmells ſtrong, nor is the light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of ſome is poiſonous, but affords the fineſt black Japan in the world. The Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are ſo wedded to their ancient cuſtoms that theſe trees are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, which, in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, or indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-ſilk, which ſo much abounds in China, and above all, the *tea-plant*, or ſhrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithſtanding our long intercourſe with China, writers are ſtill divided about the different ſpecies and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grows on the ſame ſhrub, but that the latter receives ſome kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, ſinglo, and the like, are occaſioned probably by the nature of the ſoils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant ſeems to be very ſimple; and it is certain that ſome kinds are of a much higher and more delicious

flavour than others. It is thought that the fineſt, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over-land to Ruſſia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greateſt is between the bohea and the green.

It is ſuppoſed, that the Portugueſe had the uſe of tea long before the Engliſh, but it was introduced among the latter before the Reſtoration, as mention of it is made in the firſt act of parliament, that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life in 1660. Catharine of Liſbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at court. The *ginſeng*, ſo famous among the Chineſe as the univerſal remedy, and monopoliſed even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in Britiſh America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities; and this inſtance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginſeng, however, is a native of the Chineſe Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe naturaliſts) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itſelf, and is ſo pure and fine that it approaches near to ſilver. Thoſe who are deſirous of preſerving its ſplendor and beautiful colour, add to it a fifth part of ſilver. Their gold mines are but ſlightly worked, for ſuch is the policy of this people, that they have always feared, that if their men ſhould be expoſed to the temptation of theſe artifical riches, they would be induced to forſake the more uſeful labours of agriculture. The currency of gold is principally ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

Iron, lead, and tin mines muſt be very common, ſince theſe metals are ſold at a low rate throughout the empire; and it appears from very authentic documents, that the uſe of iron in particular was very ancient there. Quarries, and coal-mines, are ſo abundant in every province, that, perhaps there is no country in the world where they are ſo common. Coals are found in great plenty in the mountains of the provinces of Chen-ſi, Chan-ſi, and Pe-tcheli; they are uſed by workmen in their furnaces, in all kitchens, and in the ſtoves with which the Chineſe warm their apartments during winter. Without this ſupply, fire-wood, which is ſcarce and very dear, would not be found ſufficient for the conſumption of the northern provinces.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] According to ſome accounts, there are fifty-eight millions of inhabitants in China; and all between twenty and ſixty years of age pay an annual tax. But according to father Amiot, who has been at great pains to inveſtigate this point of population, it would ſeem that China contains, at preſent, two hundred millions of inhabitants. This enormous population the abbe Groſier endeavours to prove, by a detail of the numbers in each of the fifteen provinces, to be by no means exaggerated. Many intelligent people greatly queſtion the credibility of this large account. On all hands, however, it is admitted that their numbers are very great. Notwithſtanding the induſtry of the people, their amazing population frequently occaſions a dearth. Parents, who cannot ſupport their female children, are allowed to caſt them into the river; but they faſten a gourd to the child that it may float on the water; and compaſſionate people are often moved by the cries of the children to ſave them from death. The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle-ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes rather ſhort. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown.

Their complexion towards the north is fair, towards the ſouth ſwarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handſomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate, though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment, ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chineſe, to palliate their jealouſy.

To enter into all the ſtarch ridiculous formalities of the Chineſe, eſpecially of their men of quality when paying or receiving viſits, would give little information, and leſs amuſement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chineſe, ſince they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the legiſlators of China looking upon ſubmiſſion and ſubordination as the corner-ſtones of all ſociety, deviſed thoſe outward marks of reſpect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the teſt of duty and reſpect from inferiors to ſuperiors; and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility was void of good ſenſe.

The Chineſe in general have been repreſented as the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world, employing their natural quickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, eſpecially the Europeans, but they obſerve that none but a Chineſe can cheat a Chineſe. They are fond of law-diſputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocriſy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes to obtain preferment. It ſhould, however, be remembered, that ſome of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by thoſe who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the ſea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knaviſh and deſigning people. But it ſeems not juſt to attempt to characteriſe a great nation by a few inſtances of this kind, though well atteſted; and we appear not to be ſufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and characters of the inhabitants. By ſome of the Jeſuit miſſionaries the Chineſe ſeem to have been too much extolled, and by the later writers too much degraded.

Dress.] This varies according to the diſtinction of ranks, and is intirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that diſtinguiſh the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarines are intitled to wear ſatin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general, they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dreſs is always compoſed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads of the faſhion of a bell; thoſe of quality are ornamented with jewels. The reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and looſe, conſiſting of a veſt and a ſaſh, a coat or a gown thrown over them, ſilk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the ſouth wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and ſometimes it is diſhevelled. Their dreſs differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open ſleeves. The Chineſe muffle themſelves up cloſely in the morning; as the heat increaſes they gradually throw off their covering, and again wrap themſelves up at the approach of evening.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never ſee each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greateſt ſcandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of a poor family happens to have three or four girls ſucceſſively, it not unfrequently happens that ſhe will expoſe them on the high roads, or caſt them into a river.

FUNERALS.] People of note cauſe their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No perſons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpſe ſuffered to be brought into a town, if a perſon died in the country. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, upon which is written the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great-grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one ſyllable: but then each word is pronounced with ſuch various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be eaſily imagined, and enables them to expreſs themſelves very well on the common occaſions of life. The miſſionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expreſſion of Chineſe words, have deviſed eleven different, and ſome of them very compounded, marks and aſpirations, to ſignify the various modulations, elevations, and depreſſions of the voice, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral meanings of the ſame monoſyllable. The Chineſe oral language being thus barren and contracted, their literature is compriſed in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous: according to ſome writers they amount to twenty-five thouſand; to thirty or forty thouſand, according to others; but the lateſt accounts ſay they amount to eighty thouſand, though he is reckoned a very learned man, who is maſter of fifteen or twenty thouſand. This language being wholly addreſſed to the eye, and having no affinity with the oral, the latter hath ſtill contiuued in its original uncultivated ſtate, while the former has received all poſſible improvements.

The Chineſe characters, Mr. Aſtle obſerves, which are by length of time become ſymbolic, were originally imitative; they ſtill partake ſo much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words like letters or marks for ſounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horſe, a third for a dog, and in ſhort a ſeparate and diſtinct mark for each thing which has a corporeal form. The Chineſe alſo uſe a great number of marks entirely of a ſymbolic nature, to impreſs on the eye the conceptions of the mind, which have no corporeal forms, though they do not combine theſe laſt marks into words, like marks for ſounds or letters; but a ſeparate mark is made to repreſent or ſtand for each idea, and they uſe them in the ſame manner as they do their abridged picture-characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chineſe books begin from the right hand; their letters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right-hand ſide of the paper. Sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this likewiſe read from the right hand.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves. They have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true ſublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the

latter

latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and the metaphyſical learning, which exiſted among them, was only known to their philoſophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits were of very ſhort duration, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Cang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing before the Europeans; but that can be only applied to block-printing, for the fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chineſe, however, had almanacks, which were ſtamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Europe.

The difficulty of maſtering and retaining ſuch a number of arbitrary marks and characters, as there are in what may be called the Chineſe written language, greatly retards the progreſs of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with ſuch honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and purſue it. The literati are reverenced as men of another ſpecies, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever ſo mean and low, they become mandarins of the higheſt rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly ſink into poverty and obſcurity, if they neglect thoſe ſtudies which raiſed their fathers. It has been obſerved, that there is no nation in the world where the firſt honours of the ſtate lie ſo open to the loweſt of the people, and where there is leſs of hereditary greatneſs. The Chineſe range all their works of literature into four claſſes. The firſt is the claſs of *King*, or the ſacred books, which contains the principles of the Chineſe religion, morality, and government, and ſeveral curious and obſcure records, relative to theſe important ſubjects. Hiſtory forms a claſs apart; yet, in this firſt claſs, there are placed ſome hiſtorical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekun-tſicou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illuſtrious ſage. The ſecond claſs is that of the *Su*, or *Che*, that is, of hiſtory and the hiſtorians. The third claſs, called *Tſu*, *Tſe*, comprehends philoſophy and the philoſophers, and contains all the works of the Chineſe literati, the productions alſo of foreign ſects and religions, which the Chineſe conſider only in the light of philoſophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, aſtronomy, phyſic, military ſcience, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and ſciences in general. The fourth claſs is called *Tcie*, or *Miſcellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chineſe, their pieces of eloquence, their ſongs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chineſe literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themſelves leſs to the ſtudy of nature, and to the reſearches of natural philoſophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical ſcience of life, and internal polity and manners. It is ſaid, that it was not before the dynaſty of the Song, in the 10th and 11th centuries after Chriſt, that the Chineſe philoſophers formed hypotheſes concerning the natural ſyſtem of the univerſe, and entered into diſcuſſions of a ſcholaſtic kind, in conſequence, perhaps, of the intercourſe they had long kept up with the Arabians, who ſtudied with ardour the works of Ariſtotle. And ſince the Chineſe have begun to pay ſome attention to natural philoſophy, their progreſs in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who made uſe of it againſt Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-

fire-pan. Their induſtry in their manufactures of ſtuffs, porcelane, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades, is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curioſities preſent themſelves in China, that have not been comprehended under foreign articles. Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire, the volcano of Lineſung is ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to occaſion a tempeſt in the air; and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to petrify fiſhes when put into them. The artificial curioſities of China are ſtupendous. The great wall, ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars, is ſuppoſed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches, according to Mr. Groſier, from the province of Shenſi to the Whang-Hay, or Yellow Sea. It is in moſt places built of brick and mortar, which is ſo well tempered, and built ſo cloſely, as not to admit the leaſt entrance for any inſtrument of iron, that though it has ſtood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed, and in ſuch a dry climate may remain in the ſame condition for many ages. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea, in the province of Petcheli, to the eaſt of Peking and almoſt in the ſame latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being tarraſſed and caſed with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. It is flanked with towers, two bow-ſhots diſtant one from the other, which add to its ſtrength, and render it much eaſier to be defended. One third of the able bodied men in China were employed in conſtructing this wall, which, it is ſaid, was begun, and completely finiſhed in the ſhort ſpace of five years; and it is farther reported, that the workmen ſtood ſo cloſe for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. P. Regis, and the other gentlemen, who took a map of theſe provinces, often ſtretched a line on the top, to meaſure the baſis of triangles, and to take diſtant points with an inſtrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or ſix horſemen to travel a-breaſt with eaſe. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains preſent on their tops, temples, monaſteries, and other edifices. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted, and to let the veſſels paſs that ſail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains; and ſome in the interior parts of the empire are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous. The triumphal arches raiſed in honour of their great men, form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtyle of architecture, yet they are ſuperb and beautiful. They are ſaid in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their ſepulchral monuments make likewiſe a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now ſo common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vaſt embelliſhments to the face of their country. They ſeem to be conſtructed by a regular order, and moſt of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the moſt admired. It is called the Porcelane Tower, becauſe it is lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taſte in which they are built, for their capaciouſneſs, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain.

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The Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal feſtivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its ſound is ſaid to be diſagreeable. The laſt curioſity I ſhall mention, is their fire-works, which in China, exceed thoſe of all other nations. In ſhort, every province of China is a ſcene of curioſities. Their buildings, except their pagodas, being confined to no order, and ſuſceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleaſing elegance not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and preſent a diverſity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be ſaid of theſe more than that ſome of them are immenſe, and there is great reaſon to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is ſaid to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking; Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary reſidence of the emperors, is ſituated in a very fertile plain, twenty leagues diſtant from the great wall. It is an oblong ſquare, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, becauſe the houſes were given to the Tartars when the preſent family came to the throne; and they refuſing to ſuffer the Chineſe to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a ſhort time built a new city; which by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, ſix leagues in compaſs. The walls and gates of Peking are of the ſurpriſing height of fifty cubits, ſo that they hide the whole city; and are ſo broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horſeback; for there are ſlopes within the city of conſiderable length, by which horſemen may aſcend the walls; and in ſeveral places there are houſes built for the guard. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embelliſhed with ſtatues, nor carvings, all their beauty conſiſting in their prodigious height, which at a diſtance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the reſt with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Moſt of the ſtreets are built in a direct line, the largeſt are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The ſhops where they ſell ſilks and China-ware generally take up the whole ſtreet, and afford a very agreeable proſpect. Each ſhop-keeper places before his ſhop, on a ſmall kind of pedeſtal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varniſhed, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the ſeveral commodities he ſells. Theſe, being placed on each ſide of the ſtreet at nearly an equal diſtance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houſes are poorly built in front, and very low, moſt of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one ſtory above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the moſt remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not conſiſt ſo much in the nobleneſs and elegance of the architecture as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly diſpoſed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's houſe, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houſes of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Attiret, a French Jeſuit, who was indulged with a ſight of the palace and gardens, ſays, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the building ſhines with gilding, paint, and varniſh, while the inſide is ſet off and furniſhed with every thing that is moſt beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of grounds, in which are raiſed, at proper diſtances, artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of ſmall vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks ſail on theſe pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are ſaid to have any

reſemblance to each other, which diverſity produces a very pleaſing effect. Every valley has its houſe of pleaſure, large enough to lodge one of our greateſt lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of theſe houſes are built with cedar, brought with a vaſt expence the diſtance of 500 leagues. Of theſe palaces, or houſes of pleaſure, there are more than 200 in this vaſt encloſure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky iſland, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly ſuch as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of rock, diſpoſed with ſuch art, as exactly to reſemble the wildneſs of nature.

The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants, though Nanking is ſaid to exceed it both in extent and populouſneſs. But Canton is the greateſt port in China, and the only one much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleaſant walks around it. From the top of ſome adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine proſpect of the country. It is beautifully interſperſed with mountains, little hills and vallies, all green; and theſe again pleaſantly diverſified with ſmall towns, villages, high towers, temples, the ſeats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and ſmall branches from the river Ta; on which are numberleſs boats and junks, ſailing different ways through the moſt fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by ſeven iron gates, and within-ſide of each there is a guard-houſe. The ſtreets of Canton are very ſtraight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag-ſtones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well ſtocked with images. The ſtreets of Canton are ſo crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet women of any faſhion are ſeldom to be ſeen, unleſs by chance, when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market-places for fiſh, fleſh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of proviſions, which are ſold very cheap. There are many private walks about the ſkirts of the town, where thoſe of the better ſort have their houſes, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whoſe buſineſs lies chiefly in the trading parts of the city, where there are only ſhops and warehouſes. Few of the Chineſe traders of any ſubſtance keep their families in the houſe where they do buſineſs, but either in the city, in the more remote ſuburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all ſuch a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the ſtreets, but in ſhops and places of public buſineſs; nor do any of their windows look towards thoſe of their neighbours. The ſhops of thoſe that deal in ſilk are very neat, make a fine ſhow, and are all in one place; for tradeſmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the ſame ſtreet. It is computed that there are in this city, and its ſuburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading veſſels lying in its harbour.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated, and produces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid to be the native land of induſtry; but it is an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with vaſt art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the uſe of drawing, is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lamp-black. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill do, by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a ſecret in Europe, and carried immenſe ſums from thence. Though the Chineſe affect to

keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity *. The Chineſe ſilks are generally plain and flowered gauſes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. They manufacture ſilks likewiſe of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is the pride and avarice of the Chineſe, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that ſince the diſcovery of the porcelane manufactures, and the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a moſt inſtructive and entertaining article, before the conqueſt of China by the Tartars; for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chineſe, they have obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient diſcipline in many reſpects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the moſt rigorous manner; but at the ſame time, the emperor was conſidered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of ſtate, were looked upon as his ſubſtitutes; and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which were due from the inferior ranks to the ſuperior, were ſettled and obſerved with the moſt ſcrupulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſeems highly ridiculous. This ſimple claim of obedience required great addreſs and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chineſe legiſlators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of myſtical appearances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of ſpeaking and writing different from thoſe of other ſubjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, ſo that they were ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached.

Though this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranquillity for a great number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulſed, and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, becauſe the ſame attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chineſe had paſſions like other men, and ſometimes a weak or wicked adminiſtration drove them into arms, and a revolution eaſily ſucceeded, which they juſtified by ſaying, that their ſovereign had ceaſed to be their father. During thoſe commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their aſſiſtance, who, poſſeſſing great ſagacity, became acquainted with the weak ſide of their conſtitution, and availed themſelves accordingly; for, having invaded and conquered the empire, they gradually conformed to the Chineſe inſtitutions.

Beſides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chineſe had ſumptuary laws and regulations for the expences of all degrees of ſubjects, which were very uſeful in preſerving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their inſtitutions likewiſe the mandarins might remonſtrate to the em-

* The Engliſh in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveral princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture, ſo generally uſeful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourſelves.

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peror, but in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner, upon the errors of his government; and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the moſt ſalutary effects. No country in the world is ſo well provided with magiſtrates for the diſcharge of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual, through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is ſtyled, "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chineſe worſhipped idols, yet their philoſophers and legiſlators had juſter notions of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worſhip of ſenſible objects, only to make them more ſubmiſſive to government. The Jeſuits made little oppoſition to this, when they attempted to convert the Chineſe; and ſuffered their proſelytes to worſhip Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chineſe legiſlators, introduced a moſt excellent ſyſtem of morals among the people, and endeavoured to ſupply the want of juſt ideas of a future ſtate, by preſcribing to them the worſhip of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Chriſtianity; but as we know little of their religion, only through the Jeſuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous inſtances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chineſe with the Chriſtian religion. Thoſe fathers, it muſt be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progreſs above a century ago in their converſions; but they miſtook the true character of the emperor, who was their patron; for he no ſooner found that they were in fact aſpiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exerciſe of their religion; ſince which time Chriſtianity has made no figure in China.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The ſecurity of travellers, and an eaſy mode of conveyance for paſſengers and merchandize of every kind, are objects to which particular attention ſeems to have been paid by adminiſtration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed greatly contributes to the former.

Theſe roads are in general very broad; they are paved in all the ſouthern provinces, and ſome of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and paſſages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preſerve them as nearly as poſſible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and ſometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a paſſage into croſs roads, that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads, covered ſeats are erected at proper diſtances, where the traveller may ſhelter himſelf from the inclemency of winter, or the exceſſive heats of ſummer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and over the croſs roads. The former are very ſpacious, but they are badly ſupplied with proviſions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to ſleep on a plain mat. Government requires of thoſe who inhabit them, to give lodging only to thoſe who aſk and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (ſays Mr. Bell), called poſt-houſes, erected at certain diſtances one from another, with a flag-ſtaff, on which is hoiſted the imperial pendant. Theſe places are guarded by ſoldiers, who run from one poſt to another with great ſpeed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in ſight of one another, and by ſignals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By theſe means the court is informed in the ſpeedieſt manner of whatever diſturbance may happen in the moſt remote part of the empire.

Revenues.] These are said by some to amount to twenty millions, or, according to the abbé Grosier, to forty-one millions sterling, a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the use of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may be easily imposed with equality, as an account of every man's family and substance is annually enrolled; and must amount to a great sum.

Military and marine strength.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the eastern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chun-tchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government, and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition which was so much in their favour.

This security, however, of the Chinese from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at present, is the disuse of arms. The troops of this empire amount to more than seven hundred thousand. This numerous army brings to our remembrance what historians tell us concerning Ninus, and Semiramis, and, to descend to later times, of the forces of Xerxes and Darius. But this multitude will appear less astonishing in China, when we consider the extent of the empire, and its enormous population. Besides these, many thousands are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preservation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks, already mentioned, and other small ships, that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war: but caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

History.] The Chinese pretend to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan-Kou is said by them to have been the first man; and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of the celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, hath been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate investigation of this subject it appears, that all the Chinese historical relations of events, prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal, or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts, which concern the monarchy since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been

arranged according to the order of time, under the inſpection of government, and with all the precautions againſt illuſion or partiality that could be ſuggeſted. Theſe precautions have been carried ſo far, that the hiſtory of the reign of each imperial family has only been publiſhed after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound ſecret during the dynaſty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is aſſerted, that many of the Chineſe hiſtorians expoſed themſelves to exile, and even to death, rather than diſguiſe the defects and vices of the ſovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoangti, at whoſe command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Chriſtian æra, ordered all the hiſtorical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, with the medals, inſcriptions, and monuments of antiquity, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppoſe his authority, and reſiſt the changes he propoſed to introduce into the monarchy; and that there might remain no earlier record, date, or authority, relative to religion, ſcience, or politics, than thoſe of his own reign, and he be conſidered as the founder of the empire. Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; ſeveral books were concealed, and eſcaped the general ruin. After this period, ſtrict ſearch was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much induſtry was employed for this purpoſe, it appears that the authentic hiſtorical ſources of the Chineſe, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Chriſt, are very few, and that they are ſtill in ſmaller number for more remote periods. But notwithſtanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chineſe hiſtory, it is ſtill immenſely voluminous, and has been judged by ſome writers ſuperior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preſerved in the library of the French king. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was publiſhed in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kammo, or the Abridgment. From theſe materials the abbé Groſier propoſed to publiſh at Paris, in the French language, a General Hiſtory of China, in 12 volumes, 4to. Some of which have been printed; and a ſmaller work in 12 volumes 8vo, by the late Father de Mailla, miſſionary at Peking, hath been juſt publiſhed.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon ſo copious a ſubject as that of the Chineſe hiſtory. It ſeems as if the original form of government was monarchical; and a ſucceſſion of excellent princes, and a duration of domeſtic tranquillity, united legiſlation with philoſophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whoſe hiſtory is wrapped up in myſteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. Their long ſtruggle with the Tartars, which laſted ſeveral centuries, and the violence of domeſtic factions, produced bloody wars, and many revolutions; ſo that though the Chineſe empire is hereditary, the imperial ſucceſſion has been often interrupted. Upwards of twenty dynaſties, or different lines and families of ſucceſſion, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chineſe, could ſubdue their empire; and neither of them could keep the conqueſts they made there. After their invaſions were over, the Chineſe went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthleſs emperor, Tſontching, was upon the throne. In the mean time, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tſe, in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himſelf, as did moſt of his courtiers and women. Ou-ſan-quey, the Chineſe general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refuſed to recogniſe the uſurper, and made a peace with Tſongate, or Chun-tchi, the Manchew

chew prince, who drove the uſurper from the throne, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himſelf in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wiſely incorporated his hereditary ſubjects with the Chineſe, ſo that in effect Tartary became an acquiſition to China. He was ſucceeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jeſuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chineſe, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the iſland of Formoſa, which the latter had taken from the Portugueſe.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which compoſed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the ſettlements which they had under the Ruſſian government on the banks of the Wolga and the Iaick, at a ſmall diſtance from the Caſpian ſea, and in a vaſt body of fifty thouſand families, they paſſed through the country of the Haſacks. After a march of eight months, in which they ſurmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themſelves as ſubjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-ſixth year of his reign. He received them graciouſly, furniſhed them with proviſions, cloaths, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and paſturage. The year following there was a ſecond emigration of about thirty thouſand other Tartar families, who alſo quitted the ſettlements which they enjoyed under the Ruſſian government, and ſubmitted to the Chineſe ſcepter. The emperor cauſed the hiſtory of theſe emigrations to be engraven upon ſtone, in four different languages.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.] THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th degrees of Eaſt longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North, by the countries of Uſbec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean; on the Eaſt, by China and the Chineſe Sea; and on the Weſt, by Perſia and the Indian Sea.

DIVISIONS.] I ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large into three great parts; firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Farther Peninſula; ſecondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninſula within or on this ſide the Ganges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extended empires. But it is neceſſary, in order to ſave many repetitions, to premiſe an account of ſome particulars common to thoſe numerous nations, which ſhall be extracted from the moſt enlightened of our modern writers who have viſited the country in the ſervice of the Eaſt India Company.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic hiſtorian, comprehends the two latter diviſions under the title of Indoſtan. The Mahometans (ſays he), who are called Moors, of Indoſtan, are computed at ten millions, and the Indians at an hundred millions. Above half the empire is ſubject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their deſcent from the old princes of India, and exerciſe all right of ſovereignty, only paying a tribute to the Great Mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which their anceſtors recogniſed his ſuperiority. In other reſpects, the government of Indoſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing

greatneſs

greatneſs of any ſubject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the adminiſtration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindooſtan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was ſome great and good genius, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his people and their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for ſo the Gentoo prieſts are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vedam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that though the original is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a ſacred commentary upon it, called the Shahſtah, which is written in the Shanſcrite, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins, who ſtudy it, even as our ſacred ſcriptures are written in Greek and Hebrew. But whether that language was originally different from that of the country, or whether it has only now become unintelligible to the people, through that change which is incident to all living languages, is not well known.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſuperior, and ſome inferior to man; in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, which is to conſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe in India. The neceſſity of inculcating this ſublime, but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes; ſo that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated into idolatry, in the worſhip of different animals, and various images, and of the moſt hideous figures, delineated or carved. Wooden images are placed in all their temples, and on certain feſtivals are exhibited in the high-roads and in the ſtreets of towns. The human figures with elephants heads, which are the objects of their devotion, have many hands, and are enormouſly corpulent.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great *tribes*. The firſt and moſt noble tribe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the Jewiſh tribe of Levi. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are ſtrictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The ſecond in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original inſtitution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other profeſſions. The third is the tribe of Beiſe, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or ſhop-keepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial ſervants; and they are incapable of raiſing themſelves to any ſuperior rank. If any one of them ſhould be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his poſterity are for ever ſhut out from the ſociety of every body in the nation, except that of the Harri caſt, who are held in utter deteſtation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meaneſt and vileſt offices. This circumſtance renders excommunication ſo dreadful, that any Hindoo will ſuffer torture, and even death itſelf, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Beſides this diviſion into tribes, the Gentoos are alſo ſubdivided into *caſts*, or ſmaller claſſes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of

theſe caſts, though ſome have ſuppoſed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the caſts, in a particular city or province, is generally indiſputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himſelf honoured by adopting the cuſtoms of a ſuperior caſt; but this laſt would give battle ſooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a ſuperior caſt with reſpect, but the ſuperior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior caſt. Their marriages are circumſcribed by the ſame barriers as the reſt of their intercourſes: and hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the members of each caſt preſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to each other. There are ſome caſts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their uglineſs. The moſt ſtriking features in the character of the Hindoos, are their ſuperſtition, and veneration for the inſtitutions and tenets of their forefathers.

The members of each caſt, ſays Dr. Robertſon, adhere invariably to the profeſſion of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the ſame families have followed, and will always continue to follow one uniform line of life. To this may be aſcribed that high degree of perfection conſpicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their anceſtors may check the ſpirit of invention, yet, by adhering to theſe, they acquire ſuch an expertneſs and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of ſuperior ſcience, and the aid of more complete inſtruments, have never been able to equal the exquiſite execution of their workmanſhip. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce, of other nations, the ſeparation of profeſſions in India, and the early diſtribution of the people into claſſes, attached to peculiar kinds of labour, ſecured ſuch abundance of the more common and uſeful commodities, as not only ſupplied their own wants, but miniſtered to thoſe of the countries around them.

To this early diviſion of the people into caſts, we muſt likewiſe aſcribe a ſtriking peculiarity in the ſtate of India, the permanence of its inſtitutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is ſtill likely to continue: neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticiſm of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European maſters, have effected any conſiderable alteration. The ſame diſtinctions of condition take place, the ſame arrangements in civil and domeſtic ſociety remain, the ſame maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the ſame ſciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the ſame; gold and ſilver have uniformly been carried thither, in order to purchaſe the ſame commodities with which it now ſupplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the preſent times, it has always been conſidered and execrated as a gulf which ſwallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows inceſſantly towards it, and from which it never returns *.

RELIGION.] The inſtitutions of religion, publicly eſtabliſhed in all the extenſive countries ſtretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, preſent to view an aſpect nearly ſimilar. They form a regular and complete ſyſtem of ſuperſtition, ſtrengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and ſecure the attachment of the people. The temples, conſecrated to their deities, are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the moſt exquiſite works in painting and ſculpture, which the artiſts, higheſt in eſtimation among them, were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worſhip are pompous and ſplendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in

* Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning India. Appendix, p. 261, 262.

all

all the tranſactions of common life, but conſtitutes an eſſential part of them. The Brahmins, who, as miniſters of religion, preſide in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be ſacred. They have eſtabliſhed among themſelves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by ſecuring ſubordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more abſolute douinion in the minds of the people. This dominion they ſupport by the command of the immenſe revenues, with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their Pagodas.

It is far from my attention to enter into any minute detail with reſpect to this vaſt and complicated ſyſtem of ſuperſtition. An attempt to enumerate the multitude of deities which are the objects of adoration in India; to deſcribe the ſplendour of worſhip in their Pagodas, and the immenſe variety of their rites and ceremonies; to recount the various attributes and functions which the craft of prieſts, or the credulity of the people, have aſcribed to their divinities; eſpecially if I were to accompany all this with a review of the numerous and often fanciful ſpeculations and theories of learned men on this ſubject, would too much ſwell this part of our work.

In the various ſuperſtitions which have prevailed in different parts of the world, the inviſible beings, who are the firſt objects of our veneration, have every where a near reſemblance. The powers of man in the more early ſtages of his progreſs are very limited. He ſuppoſes that there is a diſtinct cauſe of every remarkable effect, and aſcribes to a ſeparate power every event which attracts his attention, or excites his terror. He fancies that it is the province of one deity to point the lightning, and with an awful ſound to hurl the irreſiſtible thunderbolt at the head of the guilty; that another rides in the whirlwind, and, at his pleaſure, raiſes or ſtills the tempeſt; that a third rules over the ocean; and that a fourth is the god of battles. We may here recogniſe a ſtriking uniformity of features in the ſyſtem of ſuperſtition eſtabliſhed throughout every part of the earth; more particularly, among the Greeks in Europe, and the Indians in Aſia, the two people, in thoſe great diviſions of the earth, who were moſt early civiliſed. What is ſuppoſed to be performed by the power of Jupiter, of Neptune, of Æolus, of Mars, of Venus, according to the mythology of the Weſt, is aſcribed in the Eaſt to the agency of Agnée, the god of fire; Varoon, the god of oceans; Vayoo, the god of wind; Cama, the god of love; and a variety of other divinities.

But it is well known that in Greece, however the generality of the people entertained theſe groſs ideas, in proportion as ſcience advanced, men of reflecting minds thought more juſtly concerning the great firſt cauſe. Accordingly, ſome philoſophers among them, of great name, diſcerning the wiſdom, the foreſight, and the goodneſs diſplayed in creating, preſerving, and governing the world, perceived that the characters of the divinities which were propoſed as the objects of their adoration in their temples, could not entitle them to be conſidered as the preſiding powers in nature. They, therefore, formed ideas concerning the perfections of one Supreme Being, the Creator and Ruler of the univerſe; as juſt and rational as have ever been attained by the unaſſiſted powers of the human mind.

If from Europe we now turn to Aſia, we ſhall find, that from the progreſs which the moſt eminent perſons of the Brahmin-caſt made in the various branches of ſcience, they formed ſuch a juſt idea of the ſyſtem of nature, and of the power, wiſdom, and goodneſs, diſplayed in the formation and government of it, as elevated their minds above the popular ſuperſtition, and led them to acknowledge one Supreme Being,

"the Creator of all things (to uſe their own expreſſions), and from whom all things proceed *."

In India, the dominion of religion extends to a thouſand particulars, which in other countries are governed either by the civil laws, or by taſte, cuſtom, or faſhion. Dreſs, food, the common intercourſes of life, marriages, profeſſions, are all under the juriſdiction of religion. There is ſcarcely any thing which is not regulated by ſuperſtition. It preſcribes rules of conduct in all circumſtances and ſituations; nor is there any thing almoſt ſo trifling or minute as to be conſidered as a matter of indifference. The original government of the Hindoos, was in reality an hierarchy; for among that religious people, the higheſt authority was poſſeſſed by the prieſthood, or the Bramin caſt. Nor is it in this inſtance only, that we find a reſemblance between the natives of India and the Jews. Not only were the governments of both nations hierarchical, but in both there was a vaſt variety of religious obſervances and ceremonies extending to many particulars, which in other countries are matters of choice or of indifference; and both entertained the moſt profound reſpect and veneration for their anceſtors. All the caſts acknowledge the Bramins for their prieſts, and from them derive their belief of the tranſmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themſelves even at the death of a fly, although occaſioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of caſts are leſs ſcrupulous, and eat, although very ſparingly, both of fiſh and fleſh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. The food of the Hindoos is ſimple, conſiſting chiefly of rice, ghee, which is a kind of imperfect butter, milk, vegetables, and oriental ſpices of different kinds, but chiefly what is called in the Eaſt, *chilly*, and in the Weſt, green or Cayenne pepper. The warrior caſt may eat of the fleſh of goats, mutton, and poultry. Other ſuperior caſts may eat poultry and fiſh; but the inferior caſts are prohibited from eating fleſh or fiſh of any kind. Their greateſt luxury conſiſts in the uſe of the richeſt ſpiceries and perfumes, of which the great people are very laviſh, and which grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in their gardens. They eſteem milk the pureſt of foods, becauſe they think it partakes of ſome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becauſe they eſteem the cow itſelf almoſt like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happineſs conſiſts in the ſolaces of domeſtic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indiſpenſable duty in every man, who does not entirely ſeparate himſelf from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion alſo permits them to have ſeveral wives; but they ſeldom have more than one: and it has been obſerved, that their wives are diſtinguiſhed by a decency of demeanour, a ſolicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the moſt civiliſed countries. The amuſements of the Hindoos conſiſt in going to their pagodas, in aſſiſting at religious ſhews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies preſcribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion ſeems to forbid them to quit their own ſhores †, nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in

* Baghvat—Geeta, p. 84.

† The Gentoos are perſuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kiſtna, and Indus, have the ſacred virtue of purifying thoſe who bathe in them, from all pollutions and ſins. This religious idea ſeems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to reſtrain the natives from migrating into diſtant countries: for it is remarkable, that the ſacred rivers are ſo ſituated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of waſhing away their ſins. The Ganges, which riſes in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kiſtna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Viſiapore into the interior parts of the Decan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzarat provinces, ſeparates Indoſtan from the dominions of Perſia.

much tranquility and happineſs, if others had looked on them with the ſame indifference with which they regard the reſt of the world.

The ſoldiers, are commonly called Rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from rajahs, and reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the ſouth. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them; but when the leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without any ſtain upon their reputation.

CUSTOMS AND DRESS.] The cuſtom of women burning themſelves, upon the death of their huſbands, ſtill continues to be practiſed among ſome of high caſt and condition, though much leſs frequently than formerly, and it is ſaid, that the Bramins now do not encourage it. One particular claſs of women are allowed to be openly proſtituted: theſe are the famous dancing girls. Their attitudes and movements are very eaſy, and not ungraceful. Their perſons are delicately formed, gaudily decorated, and highly perfumed. By the continuation of wanton attitudes, they acquire, as they grow warm in the dance, a frantic laſciviouſneſs, and communicate, by a natural contagion, the moſt voluptuous deſires to the beholders.

The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chineſe; and remarkably honeſt and humane: there ſcarcely is an inſtance of a robbery in all Indoſtan, though the diamond merchants travel without defenſive weapons. According to a late writer, the Hindoos, as well as the Perſians, Tartars, and adjoining nations, who have inhabited Indoſtan ſince it was invaded by Tamerlane, though of different nations, religions, laws, and cuſtoms, poſſeſs nevertheleſs, in equal degrees, hoſpitality, politeneſs, and addreſs. In refinement and eaſe they are ſuperior to any people to the weſtward of them. In politeneſs and addreſs, in gracefulneſs of deportment, and ſpeech, an Indian is as much ſuperior to a Frenchman of faſhion, as a French courtier is to a Dutch burgomaſter of Dort. A Frenchman's eaſe is mixed with forward familiarity, with confidence, and ſelf-conceit; but the Hindoos, eſpecially thoſe of the higher caſts, are in their demeanour eaſy and unconſtrained, ſtill more than even a French courtier, and their eaſe and freedom is reſerved, modeſt, and reſpectful.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair is long, their perſons are ſtraight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and tapering, their countenances open and pleaſant, and their features exhibit the moſt delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly ſofneſs.

Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the higheſt degree graceful. The dreſs of the men is a kind of cloſe-bodied gown, like our women's gowns, and wide trowſers, reſembling petticoats, reaching down to their ſlippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have ſhawls over their heads and ſhoulders, ſhort cloſe jackets, and tight drawers which come down to their ankles. Hence the dreſs of the men gives them, in the eyes of Europeans, an appearance of effeminacy; whereas that of the women will appear rather maſculine.

Their houſes cover much ground, and have ſpacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are ſmall, and the furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Perſian carpets. The grandeur of their palaces conſiſt in baths, perfumes, temples, gods, and harems. The harems or zezanas, that is, the reſidences of the women, are removed from the front of the houſe, and lighted only from a ſquare ſpace in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is inconceivably rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about

their necks, and alſo in their ears and noſtrils; with bracelets on their wriſts and arms, and around their ankles.

PAGODAS.] The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are ſtupendous but diſguſtful ſtone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Brahmins.

To this, however, there are ſome exceptions; for in proportion ſays Dr. Robertſon, the philoſophical hiſtorian of India, to the progreſs of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the ſtructure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taſte of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finiſhed ſtyle there are Pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Indoſtan, particularly in the ſouthern provinces, which were not expoſed to the deſtructive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In order to aſſiſt my readers in forming a proper idea of theſe buildings, I ſhall briefly deſcribe two, of which we have the moſt accurate accounts. The entry to the Pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coaſt, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is by a ſtately gate under a pyramid an hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large ſtones above forty feet long, and more than five feet ſquare, and all covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immenſe variety of figures neatly executed. The whole ſtructure extends one thouſand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-ſix in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finiſhed with an elegance entitled to the admiration of the moſt ingenious artiſts.

The Pagoda of Seringham, ſuperior in ſanctity to that of Chillambrum, ſurpaſſes it as much in grandeur; and fortunately I can convey a more perfect idea of it by adopting the words of an elegant and accurate hiſtorian. This Pagoda is ſituated about a mile from the weſtern extremity of the iſland of Seringham, formed by the diviſion of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is compoſed of ſeven ſquare enclоſures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. Theſe enclоſures are three hundred and fifty feet diſtant from one another, and each has four large gates with a ſquare tower; which are placed, one in the middle of each ſide of the enclоſure, and oppoſite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the ſouth is ornamented with pillars, ſeveral of which are ſingle ſtones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and thoſe which form the roof are ſtill larger: in the inmoſt enclоſures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great Pagodas of India, the Brahmins live in a ſubordination which knows no reſiſtance, and ſlumber in a voluptuouſneſs which knows no wants *." If the Brahmins are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they frequently turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that they know how to calculate eclipſes; and that judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewiſe encourage thoſe ſuperſtitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry as belonging to themſelves. Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive under all their oppreſſions, and by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of that reſentment in their nature that animates the reſt of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and ſometimes bury their money, and rather than diſcover it, put themſelves to death by poiſon or otherwiſe. This practice, which it ſeems is not uncom-

* Orme's Hiſt. of Milit. Tranſact. of Indoſtan, vol. i. p. 178.

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mon, accounts for the vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver that till of late prevailed in Indoſtan.

INFLUENCE OF FOOD AND EARLY MARRIAGES.] The reaſons above mentioned account likewiſe for their being leſs under the influence of their paſſions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual uſe of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nouriſhment; and their marrying early, the male before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women begins to decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of mind; and whatever may be the cauſe, a recent traveller among them obſerves, it is certain, that death is regarded with leſs horror in India than in any other country in the world. The origin and the end of all things, ſay the philoſophers of India of the preſent times, is a *vacuum*. A ſtate of repoſe is the ſtate of greateſt perfection; and this is the ſtate after which a wiſe man aſpires. It is better, ſay the Hindoos, to ſit than to walk, and to ſleep than to wake; but death is the beſt of all. According to the Gentoo laws, criminals ſentenced to death are not to be ſtrangled, ſuffocated, or poiſoned, but to be cut off by the ſword; becauſe, without an effuſion of blood, malefactors are ſuppoſed to die with all their ſins about them; but the ſhedding of their blood, it is thought, expiates their crimes.

The Mahometans, who, in Indoſtan, are called Moors, are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Indoſtan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They ſettled colonies in ſeveral places, whoſe deſcendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which ſtill ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahometans, received under their protection all that profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which might be ſtyled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips; each nabob being immediately accountable to his ſoubah, who in proceſs of time became almoſt independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes has likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government: but it is obſervable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all thoſe adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horſes and their ſwords, degenerated into eaſtern indolence and ſenſuality.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Mahrattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indoſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that the Mahometans or Moors are of ſo deteſtable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and thoſe were among the Tartar and Perſian officers of the army. They are void, we are told, of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the heart. But it is probable, that theſe repreſentations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The manner of drinking among the Gentoos is remarkable. They religiouſly

avoid touching the veſſel that contains the liquor with their lips, and pour it into their mouths, holding the bottle, or other veſſel, at leaſt at a foot's diſtance. Their idea is, that they would be polluted by ſtagnating water. They will drink from a pump, or of any running ſtream, but not out of a pool.

POLITICAL CONSTITUTION AND FORM OF GOVERNMENT. } Theſe will afford a very ſtriking proof of the early and high civilization of the people of India. "The Indians trace back the hiſtory of their own country through an immenſe ſucceſſion of ages, and aſſert that all Aſia, from the mouth of the Indus on the weſt, to the confines of China on the eaſt, and from the mountains of Thibet on the north, to Cape Comorin on the ſouth, formed a vaſt empire, ſubject to one mighty ſovereign, under whom rules ſeveral hereditary princes and rajahs. But their chronology which meaſures the life of man in ancient times by thouſands of years, and computes the length of the ſeveral periods, during which it ſuppoſes the world to have exiſted, by millions, is ſo wildly extravagant, as not to merit any ſerious diſcuſſion. We muſt reſt ſatisfied then, until ſome more certain information is obtained with reſpect to the ancient hiſtory of India, with taking the firſt accounts of that country, which can be deemed authentic, from the Greeks, who ſerved under Alexander the Great. They found kingdoms of conſiderable magnitude eſtabliſhed in that country. The territories of Porus, and of Taxiles comprehended a great part of the Panjab *, one of the moſt fertile, and beſt cultivated countries in India. The kingdom of the Praſij, or Gandaridæ, ſtretched to a great extent on both ſides of the Ganges. All the three, as appears from the ancient Greek writers, were powerful and populous.

"This deſcription of the partition of India into ſtates of ſuch magnitude, is alone a convincing proof of its having advanced far in civilization. In whatever region of the earth there has been an opportunity of obſerving the progreſs of men in ſocial life, they appear at firſt in ſmall independent tribes or communities. Their common wants prompt them to unite; and their mutual jealouſies, as well as the neceſſity of ſecuring ſubſiſtence, compel them to drive to a diſtance every rival who might encroach on thoſe domains which they conſider as their own. Many ages elapſe before they coaleſce, or acquire ſufficient foreſight to provide for the wants, or ſufficient wiſdom to conduct the affairs of a numerous ſociety. Even under the general climate, and in the rich ſoil of India, more favourable perhaps to the union and increaſe of the human ſpecies than any other part of the globe, the formation of ſuch extenſive ſtates, as were eſtabliſhed in that country when firſt viſited by Europeans, muſt have been a work of long time; and the members of them muſt have been long accuſtomed to exertions of uſeful induſtry.

"Though monarchical government was eſtabliſhed in all the countries of India, to which the knowledge of the ancients extended, the ſovereigns were far from poſſeſſing uncontrouled or deſpotic power. The monarchs of India, who are all taken from the ſecond of the four claſſes formerly deſcribed, which is intruſted with the functions of government and exerciſe of war, behold among their ſubjects an order of men far ſuperior to themſelves in dignity, and ſo conſcious of their own pre-eminence, both in rank and in ſanctity, that they would deem it degradation and pollution, if they were to eat of the ſame food with their ſovereign.

"While the ſacred rites of the Bramins oppoſed a barrier againſt the encroachments of regal power on one hand, it was circumſcribed on the other by the ideas which thoſe who occupied the higheſt ſtations in ſociety entertained of their own dignity and privileges.—Nor were the benefits of theſe reſtraints upon the pow-

* This term means the country watered by the five eaſtern branches of the Indus.

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er of the ſovereign confined wholly to the two ſuperior orders in the ſtate; they extended, in ſome degree, to the third claſs employed in agriculture." This is very ſatisfactorily ſtated by our accurate and ingenious hiſtorian *.

LAWS AND JUDICIAL PROCEEDINGS.] In the early and rude ages of ſociety, the few diſputes with reſpect to property which ariſe, are terminated by the interpoſition of the old men, or by the authority of the chiefs in every ſmall tribe or community; their deciſions are dictated by their own diſcretion, or founded on plain and obvious maxims of equity. But as controverſies multiply, caſes ſimilar to ſuch as have been formerly determined muſt recur, and the awards upon theſe grow gradually into precedents, which ſerve to regulate future judgments. Thus, long before the nature of property is defined by poſitive ſtatutes, there is gradually formed, in every ſtate, a body of cuſtomary or common law by which judicial proceedings are directed, and every deciſion conformable to it is ſubmitted to with reverence, as the reſult of the accumulated wiſdom and experience of ages.

In this ſtate the adminiſtration of juſtice ſeems to have been in India, when firſt viſited by Europeans. Though the Indians, according to their account, had no written laws, but determined every controverted point, by recollecting what had been formerly decided; they aſſert that juſtice was diſpenſed among them with great accuracy, and that crimes were moſt ſeverely puniſhed. But in this general obſervation is contained all the intelligence which the ancients furniſh concerning the nature and forms of judicial proceedings in India. Fortunately, the defects of their information have been amply ſupplied by the more accurate and extenſive reſearches of the moderns.—Towards the middle of the ſixteenth century, Akber the Sixth, in deſcent from Tamerlane, mounted the throne of Indoſtan. As in every province of his extenſive empire, the Hindoos formed the great body of his ſubjects, he laboured to acquire a perfect knowledge of their religion, their ſciences, their laws and inſtitutions; in order that he might conduct every part of his government, particularly the adminiſtration of juſtice, in a manner as much accommodated as poſſible to their own ideas. In this generous undertaking he was ſeconded with zeal by his vizier Abul Fazel, a miniſter whoſe underſtanding was not leſs enlightened than that of his maſter. By their aſſiduous reſearches, and conſultation of learned men, ſuch information was obtained as enabled Abul Fazel to publiſh a brief compendium of Hindoo juriſprudence in the Ayeen Akberry, which may be conſidered as the firſt genuine communication of its principles to perſons of a different religion. About two centuries afterwards, the illuſtrious example of Akber was imitated and ſurpaſſed by Mr. Haſtings, the governor general of the Britiſh ſettlements in India. By his authority, and under his inſpection, the moſt eminent Pundits, or Bramins learned in the laws, of the provinces over which he preſided, were aſſembled at Calcutta; and, in the courſe of two years, compiled from their moſt ancient and approved authors, ſentence by ſentence, with addition or diminution, a full code of Hindoo laws; which is, undoubtedly, the moſt valuable and authentic elucidation of Indian policy and manners that has been hitherto communicated to Europe.

According to the Pundits, ſome of the writers upon whoſe authority they found the decrees which they have inſerted in the code, lived ſeveral millions of years before their time. Without entering into any examination of what is ſo extravagant, we may conclude, that the Hindoos have in their poſſeſſion treatiſes concerning the laws and juriſprudence of their country, of more remote antiquity than are to be found in any other nation. The truth of this depends not upon their own teſtimony alone, but it is put beyond doubt by one circumſtance, that all theſe treatiſes are

* Dr. Robertſon's Diſquiſition concerning India, Appendix, p. 262—266.

written

written in the Shanſkreet language, which has not been ſpoken for many ages in any part of Indoſtan, and is now underſtood by none but the moſt learned Bramins. That the Hindoos were a people highly civilized, at the time when their laws were compoſed, is moſt clearly eſtabliſhed by internal evidence contained in the Code itſelf. Among nations beginning to emerge from barbariſm, the regulations of law are extremely ſimple, and applicable only to a few obvious caſes of daily occurrence. Men muſt have been long united in a ſocial ſtate, their tranſactions muſt have been numerous and complex, and judges muſt have determined an immenſe variety of controverſies to which theſe gave riſe, before the ſyſtem of law becomes voluminous and comprehenſive. In that early age of the Roman republic, when the laws of the twelve tables were promulgated, nothing more was required than the laconic injunctions which they contain for regulating the deciſions of courts of juſtice; but, in a later period, the body of civil law, ample as its contents are, was found hardly ſufficient for that purpoſe. To the jejune brevity of the twelve tables, the Hindoo code has no reſemblance, but with reſpect to the number and variety of points it conſiders, it will bear a compariſon with the celebated digeſt of Juſtinian; or with the ſyſtems of juriſprudence in nations moſt highly civiliſed. The articles of which the Hindoo code is compoſed, are arranged in natural and luminous order. They are numerous and comprehenſive, and inveſtigated with all that minute attention and diſcernment which are natural to a people diſtinguiſhed for acuteneſs and ſubtility of underſtanding, who have been long accuſtomed to the accuracy of judicial proceedings, and acquainted with all the refinements of legal practice. The deciſions concerning every point, with a few exceptions occaſioned by local prejudices and peculiar cuſtoms, are founded upon the great and immutable principles of juſtice which the human mind acknowledges and reſpects, in every age, and in all parts of the earth *.

The Mahometan inſtitutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the ſubtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or *omrahs*, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights even of the ſubtenants of thoſe lands are indefeaſible.

Mr. Dalrymple obſerves, according to the Gentoo conſtitution, land (houſes and gardens excepted) is not private property, but belongs to the community, in the ſeveral villages; each of which are ſupplied with their reſpective public officers, as the headman, to execute juſtice; the conicopoly, to keep the accounts of the village, the corn-meter, ſmith, barber, doctor, aſtrologer, &c. The grounds are cultivated by the community, and the produce ſhared out in certain proportions to all. One is allotted to the Pagodas and Brahmins, one to the government, another to the public officers, one to the repair of tanks, or reſervoirs of water, and the reſt diſtributed among the community: but we underſtand that the Mahometan government, and the intruſion of Europeans, have introduced ſome innovations in this ancient conſtitution, particularly, by farming the circar, or government ſhares.

LITERATURE.] The evidence which we have of the literature of the Indians is rendered more intereſting by being derived from a ſource of knowledge which the laudable curioſity of our countrymen has opened to the people of Europe within

* Dr. Robertſon's Diſquiſition, Appendix, p. 270——275.

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theſe few years. That all the ſcience and literature poſſeſſed by the Brahmins, were contained in books written in a language underſtood by a few only of the moſt learned among them, is a fact which has long been known; and all the Europeans ſettled in India during three centuries, have complained that the Brahmins obſtinately refuſed to inſtruct any perſon in this language. But at length, by addreſs, mild treatment, and a perſuaſion that the earneſtneſs with which inſtruction was ſolicited, proceeded not from any intention of turning their religion into deriſion, but from a deſire of acquiring a perfect knowledge of their ſciences and literature, their ſcruples have been overcome. Several Britiſh gentlemen are now completely maſters of the Shanſkreet language. The myſterious veil, formerly deemed impenetrable, is removed; and in the courſe of five years, the curioſity of the public has been gratified by two publications as ſingular as they were unexpected. The one is a tranſlation, by Mr. Wilkins, of an Epiſode from the *Mahabarad*, an epic poem, in high eſtimation among the Hindoos, compoſed, according to their account, by Kreeſhna Dwypayen Veias, the moſt eminent of their Brahmins, above three thouſand years before the Chriſtian æra. The other is *Sacontala*, a dramatic poem, written about a century before the birth of Chriſt, tranſlated by ſir William Jones.

The Mahabarad is a voluminous poem, conſiſting of upwards of four hundred thouſand lines. Mr. Wilkins has tranſlated more than a third of it; but only a ſhort epiſode, entitled Baghvat-Geeta, is hitherto publiſhed, and from this ſpecimen we muſt form an opinion with reſpect to the whole. The ſubject of the poem is a famous civil war between two branches of the royal houſe of Bhaurat. When the forces on each ſide were formed in the field, and ready to decide the conteſt by the ſword, Arjoon, the favourite and pupil of the god Kreeſhna, who accompanied him in this hour of danger, requeſted of him to cauſe his chariot to advance between the two hoſtile armies. He looked at both armies, and beheld, on either ſide, none but grandſires, uncles, couſins, tutors, ſons and brothers, near relations or boſom friends; and when he had gazed for a while, and ſaw theſe prepared for the fight, he was ſeized with extreme pity and compunction, and uttered his ſorrows in the following words:— "Having beheld, O *Kreeſhna!* my kindred thus waiting anxious for the fight, my members fail me, my countenance withereth, the hair ſtandeth an end upon my body, and all my frame trembleth with horror! Even *Gandeev*, my bow, eſcapeth from my hand, and my ſkin is parched and dried up.—When I have deſtroyed my kindred, ſhall I longer look for happineſs? I wiſh not for victory, *Kreeſhna*; I want not dominion; I want not pleaſure; for what is dominion, and the enjoyments of life, or even life itſelf, when thoſe for whom dominion, pleaſure and enjoyment were to be coveted, have abandoned life and fortune, and ſtand here in the field ready for the battle. Tutors, ſons and fathers, grandſires and grandſons, uncles, nephews, couſins, kindred, and friends! although they would kill me, I wiſh not to fight them; no not even for the dominion of the three regions of the univerſe, much leſs for this little earth *."

The drama of Sacontala muſt be thought to be a great literary curioſity; but from this the nature of our preſent work will not permit us to give any extract. We ſhall therefore refer our curious readers either to the tranſlation above mentioned, or to ſeveral quotations he will find in Dr. Robertſon's elegant Appendix on the manners and inſtitutions of the people of India; from whence we have taken the preceding account, and much enriched this part of our work; which we ſhall cloſe by one remark, namely, that it is only to nations conſiderably advanced in refinement, that the drama is a favourite entertainment. The Greeks had been for a good time a po-

* Baghvat Geeta, p. 30, 31.

liſhed people; Alcæus and Sappho had compoſed their odes, and Thales and Anaximander had opened their ſchools, before tragedy made its firſt rude effort in the cart of Thēſpis; and a good time elapſed before it attained to any conſiderable degree of excellence. From the drama of Sacontala, then, we muſt form an advantageous idea of the ſtate of improvement in that ſociety to whoſe taſte it was ſuited.

Beſides the two works which have been already mentioned, we ſhall enumerate ſome other pieces which have been tranſlated from the Shanſkreet language.—1. To Mr. Wilkins we are indebted for *Heeto-pades*, or *Amicable Inſtruction*, in a ſeries of connected fables, interſperſed with moral, prudential, and political maxims.—2. In the firſt number of the New Aſiatic Miſcellany, we have a tranſlation of a celebrated compoſition in the eaſt, known by the title of the *Five Gems*. It conſiſts of ſtanzas by five poets, who attended the court of Abiſſura, king of Bengal. Some of theſe ſtanzas are ſimple and elegant.—3. An ode tranſlated from Wulli; in which that extravagance of fancy, and thoſe far-fetched and unnatural conceits, which ſo often diſguſt Europeans with the poetical compoſitions of the Eaſt, abound too much.—4. Some original grants of land, of very ancient dates, tranſlated by Mr. Wilkins. It may ſeem odd, that a charter of legal conveyance of property ſhould be ranked among the literary compoſitions of any people. But ſo widely do the manners of the Hindoos differ from thoſe of Europe, that as our lawyers multiply words and clauſes, in order to render a grant complete, and to guard againſt every thing that may invalidate it, the *Pundits* ſeem to diſpatch the legal part of the deed with brevity, but, in a long preamble and concluſion, make an extraordinary diſplay of their own learning, eloquence, and powers of compoſition, both in proſe and in verſe. The preamble to one of theſe deeds is an encomium of the monarch who grants the land, in a bold ſtrain of eaſtern exaggeration: "When his innumerable army marched, the heavens were ſo filled with the duſt of their feet, that the birds of the air could reſt upon it. His elephants moved like walking mountains, and the earth, oppreſſed by their weight, mouldered into duſt."—5. The tranſlation of part of the Shaſter, publiſhed by colonel Dow, in the year 1768. This tranſlation was not made by him from the Shanſkreet, but taken from the mouth of a Brahmin, who explained the Shaſter in Perſian, or in the vulgar language of Bengal.

COMMERCE.] In every age, it has been a commerce of luxury rather than of neceſſity, which has been carried on between Europe and India. Its elegant manufactures, ſpices, and precious ſtones, are neither objects of deſire to nations of ſimple manners, nor are ſuch nations poſſeſſed of wealth ſufficient to purchaſe them. The three great articles of general importation from India were ſpices and aromatics, precious ſtones and pearls, and ſilk.—1. Spices and aromatics. From the mode of religious worſhip in the heathen world; from the incredible number of their deities, and of the temples conſecrated to them; the conſumption of frankincenſe and other aromatics, which were uſed in every ſacred function, muſt have been very great: but the vanity of men occaſioned a greater conſumption of theſe fragment ſubſtances than their piety. It was the cuſtom of the Romans to burn the bodies of their dead; and they deemed it a diſplay of magnificence, to cover, not only the body, but the funeral pile on which it was laid, with the moſt coſtly ſpices.—2. Precious ſtones, together with which pearls may be claſſed, ſeem to be the article next in value imported from the Eaſt.—3. Another production of India in great demand at Rome, was ſilk.

In two particulars, however, our importations from India differ greatly from thoſe of the ancients. The dreſs, both of the Greeks and Romans, was almoſt entirely woollen

woollen, which, by their frequent uſe of the warm bath, was rendered abundantly comfortable. Their conſumption of linen and cotton cloths was much inferior to that of modern times, when theſe are worn by perſons in every rank of life. Accordingly a great branch of modern importation from that part of India with which the ancients were acquainted, is in *piece-goods*; comprehending, under that mercantile term, the immenſe variety of fabrics, which Indian ingenuity has formed of cotton. Beſides theſe, we import, to a conſiderable extent, various commodities, which are to be conſidered merely as the materials of our domeſtic manufactures. Such are the cotton-wool of Indoſtan, the ſilk of China, and the ſalt-petre of Bengal.

We have already given the outlines of the government by which this great empire long ſubſiſted, without almoſt the reſemblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was ſhaken, however, after the overthrow of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and ſupport their power; ſo that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-maſters, were left to periſh through want. To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themſelves, and ſome even of the Brahmins, as the miniſters of their rapaciouſneſs and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Khan, Indoſtan, from being a well-regulated government, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ſtratocracy; every great man protects himſelf in his tyranny by his ſoldiers, whoſe pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private aſſaſſinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worſe ſtate, concern themſelves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above cauſes are owing the late ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in Indoſtan. The reader, from this repreſentation, may perceive, that all the Engliſh have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from uſurpers and robbers; and their poſſeſſion of it being guarantied by the preſent lawful emperor, is ſaid to be founded upon the laws and conſtitutions of that country. We are, however, ſorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the ſervants of the Eaſt India company towards the natives has in too many inſtances been highly diſhonourable to the Engliſh name, and totally inconſiſtent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteriſtic.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 Breadth 1000	between	1 and 30 north latitude. 92 and 109 eaſt longitude.	741,500

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninſula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chineſe ſea, on the Eaſt; by the ſame ſea and the ſtraits of Malacca, on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal

and the Hither India, on the Weſt. The ſpace between Bengal and China is now called the province of Mecklus, and other diſtricts, ſubject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

Grand Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north-weſt	Acham	Camdara	180,000
	Ava	Ava	
	Arracan	Arracan	
On the ſouth-weſt	Pegu	Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30	50,000
	Martaban	Martaban	
	Siam	Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18.	170,000
	Malacca	Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 2-12.	48,000
On the north-eaſt	Tonquin	Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30.	112,000
	Laos	Lanchang	59,400
On the ſouth-eaſt	Cochin China	Thoanoa	61,900
	Cambodia	Kambodia	60,200
	Chiampa	Padram	

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was beſt known to the Perſians. The whole of this peninſula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly ſo to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Authors differ concerning the air of this country, ſome preferring that of the ſouthern, and ſome that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in ſome places moiſt, and conſequently unhealthy. The climate is ſubject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, ſo that the people build their houſes upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of ſeaſons, but wet and dry. Eaſterly and Weſterly *monſoons* (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe run from North to South almoſt the whole length of the country; but the lands near the ſea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

RIVERS.] The chief are Sanpoo * or Burrampooter † Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river Nou Kian.

Of theſe the Burrampooter, called Sanpoo, in the upper part of its courſe, is by far the moſt conſiderable. This rival ſiſter of the Ganges iſſues from the ſame mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary, i. e. an eaſterly direction through Thibet, winds to the ſouth-weſt through Aſſam, and entering Indoſtan, flows to the ſouth, aſſumes the name of Megna, and joins the weſtern branch of the Ganges with an immenſe body of water, equal if not ſuperior to the Ganges itſelf.

Theſe two noble rivers, when they approach the ſea, divide into ſuch a multitude of channels, and receive ſuch a number of navigable ſtreams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys by their means the fineſt inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives conſtant employment to 30,000 boatmen. Theſe channels are ſo numerous that very few places in this tract are even in

* Sanpoo, in the language of Thibet, means *The River*.

† The orthography of this word, as given here, is according to the common pronunciation in Bengal; but it is ſaid to be written in the Shanſcrit language, *Brahma-pooter*, which ſignifies the ſon of *Brahma*. Major Rennel's Memoir, 255.

the dry ſeaſon 25 miles from a navigable ſtream; and in the ſeaſon of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the ſoil to the extent of more than 100 miles.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin China. The ſtraits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banſac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.] The ſoil of this peninſula is fertile in general, and produces all the delicious fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables, and in Ava, a quantity of ſalt-petre, and the beſt teek-timber, or Indian oak, which for ſhip-building in warm climates is of much longer duration than any European oak. Teek ſhips of 40 years old are not uncommon in the Indian ſeas. This peninſula abounds likewiſe in ſilks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domeſtic and wild, that are common in the ſouthern kingdoms of Aſia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the moſt healthful country of all the peninſula. In ſome places, eſpecially towards the north, the inhabitants have ſwellings in their throats, ſaid to be owing to the badneſs of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Tonquineſe are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. His majeſty engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacker houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous. The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, with large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin China, the two ſexes are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs, which reſembles that of the Perſians. The people of quality are fond of Engliſh broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the beſt countries in Aſia, the inhabitants prefer dogs-fleſh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, becauſe the king is ſole proprietor of all the gold and ſilver, and other metals, found in his kingdom. They live, however, eaſy and comfortably. Almoſt every houſe-keeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women, polygamy being practiſed all over India.

It is unqueſtionable that thoſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, had the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally aſcribed to the Azemeſe. The inhabitants of the ſouthern diviſion of this peninſula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the ſuperſtitions that prevail in this peninſula are extremely groſs, yet the people believe in a future ſtate; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and ſuch veſſels of gold and ſilver as they think can be of uſe to them in their future life. The people in this peninſula are commonly very fond of ſhew, and often make an appearance beyond their circumſtances. They are delicate in no part of their dreſs but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathſome; for beſides dogs, they eat rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. The people of Arracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to conſummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women moſt when in a ſtate of pregnancy. Their treatment of the ſick is ridiculous beyond belief; and in many places; when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the bank of ſome river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey. Notwithſtanding the great antiquity of moſt Indian nations, it is confidently aſſerted that on the confines of Arracan and Pegu, there is a people (if ſolitary ſavages, roaming through

woods

woods in queſt of prey, deſerve the name of people) that appear to be in the very firſt ſtage of ſociety. They are the only people in the known world that go abſolutely naked, without the ſmalleſt covering on any part of their bodies. They live on fruit, which grows ſpontaneouſly, in the uncultivated deſert they inhabit, in great abundance; and on the fleſh of animals, which they tear alive and devour raw. They ſit on their hams, with their legs and arms diſpoſed in the manner of monkeys. At the approach of men, they fly into their woods. They take care of their offspring, and live in families, but ſeem to have no ideas of ſubordination of rank or civil government.

The diverſions common in this country are fiſhing and hunting, the celebrating of feſtivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Perſian, but in this peninſula it is chiefly Malayan, interſperſed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Brahmins, who are the tribe of the prieſthood, deſcend from thoſe Brachmans who are mentioned to us with ſo much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philoſophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their anceſtors, as prieſts, their religious doctrines are ſtill implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the ſource of all the knowledge which exiſts in Indoſtan. But the utmoſt ſtretch of their mathematical knowledge ſeems to be the calculation of eclipſes. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatiſes on rhetoric: their ideas of muſic, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine they derive no aſſiſtance from the knowledge of anatomy, ſince diſſections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Aſiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their hiſtorians verboſe: but though the manner of eaſtern compoſitions differs from the correct taſte of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Aſiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow obſerves, that in the Shanſcrit, or learned language of the Brahmins, which is the grand repoſitory of the religion, philoſophy, and hiſtory of the Hindoos, there are many hundred volumes in proſe which treat of the ancient Indians and their hiſtory. The ſame writer alſo remarks, that the Shanſcrit records contain accounts of the affairs of Weſtern Aſia, very different from thoſe given by the Arabians; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally ſo much prejudiced againſt the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be relied on.

Mr. Dow obſerves, that the ſmall progreſs which correctneſs and elegance of ſentiment and diction have made in the Eaſt, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generoſity and reſpect than the Mahometan emperors of Indoſtan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which muſt aſtoniſh Europeans, but an infallible road for riſing to the firſt offices of the ſtate. The character of the learned was at the ſame time ſo ſacred, that tyrants, who made a paſtime of embruing their hands in the blood of their other ſubjects, not only abſtained from offering violence to men of genius, but ſtood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Theſe vary in the different countries of this peninſula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in ſome parts, are obliged to manufacture their ſalt out of aſhes. In all handicraft trades that they underſtand, the people are more induſtrious, and better workmen, than

than moſt of the Europeans; and in weaving, ſewing, embroidering, and ſome other manufactures, it is ſaid that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are unſkilful in drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineneſs of their linen, and the fillagree work in gold and ſilver, are beyond any thing of thoſe kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in ſhort, is courted by all trading nations, and probably has been ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt materials of luxury. The greateſt ſhare of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is ſtill very conſiderable; that of the French has for ſome time declined, nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES. This article is ſo extenſive, that it requires a ſlight review of the kingdoms that form this peninſula. In Axem, it hath been already obſerved, the king is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong or Kirganu. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently ſubject to the kings of Arracan; and that they ſend to the Chineſe gold and ſilk, for which they receive ſilver in return. Arracan lies to the ſouth of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, ſubject to the chief king, who reſides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, ſeven idols caſt in gold of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious ſtones. Pegu is about 350 Engliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. The riches of the kingdom, when an independent ſtate, were almoſt incredible; ſome idols, as big as life, being of maſſy gold and ſilver. The king's revenues aroſe from the rents of lands, of which he was ſole proprietor, and from duties on merchandiſe; ſo that ſome thought him the richeſt monarch in the world, except the Chineſe emperor. He was ſaid to be able to bring a million, and on occaſion a million and a half, of ſoldiers to the field, well cloathed and armed; and to be maſter of 800 trained elephants, each with a caſtle on his back holding four ſoldiers. The conſtitution of this empire is of the feudal kind, for the prince aſſigns lands and towns to his nobles upon military tenures. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the ſtate of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in that province.

We know little of the kingdom of Ava. Monchaboo was the reſidence of the king, and not Ava, in 1755. It is ſaid, the honours the king aſſumes are next to divine. His ſubjects trade chiefly in muſk and jewels, rubies, and ſapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants reſemble thoſe of Pegu. In thoſe kingdoms, and indeed in the greateſt part of this peninſula, the doctrines of the Grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as thoſe of the Brahmins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos, formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay, but that is now ſubject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is ſaid to be immenſely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the groſs ſuperſtitions of the eaſt, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one ſovereign, who, like his oriental brethern, is abſolutely deſpotic, and lives in inexpreſſible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the ſlave of his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Siam has been often deſcribed by miſſionaries and pretended travellers in the moſt romantic terms; and therefore we can pay little credit to their accounts, farther than that it is a rich and flouriſhing kingdom, and that it approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickneſs and acuteneſs of its inhabitants

habitants, very near to the Chineſe. The kingdom of Siam is ſurrounded by high mountains, which on the eaſt ſide ſeparate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the weſt, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the ſouth it is waſhed by the river Siam, and joins the peninſula of Malacca, the north-weſt part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both ſexes are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. Great care is taken of the education of the children. Their marriages are ſimple, and performed by their talapoins, or prieſts, ſprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating ſome prayers. We are told that gold is ſo abundant in this country, that their moſt ponderous images are made of it; and that it is ſeen in vaſt quantities on the outſide of the king's palace. Theſe relations are found, by modern travellers, to be the fictions of French and other miſſionaries: for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either exceſſively thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that covers wooden or other materials. The government is extremely deſpotic; even ſervants muſt appear before their maſters in a kneeling poſture; and the mandarins are proſtrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is repreſented as a large city, but ſcarcely a ſixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which ſtands about 18 leagues to the ſouth of Siam, and 12 miles from the ſea, is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls, batteries, and braſs cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninſula of Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are ſaid to be real maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peninſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants are ſimple, or rather groſs, in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the lateſt travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums. Some miſſionaries pretend that it is the Golden Cherſoneſus or Peninſula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of a trade with India; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at preſent, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chineſe. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious and ingenious people, is eaſily accounted for by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is that they ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ignorance and ſlavery.

The Engliſh carry on a ſmuggling trade in their country ſhips, from the coaſt of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the beſt information, its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 520 Engliſh miles; and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398. This kingdom has a ſpacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous gnats, ſerpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with thoſe of the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour,

flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant; but is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans. The ſame barbarous magnificence, the deſpotiſm of their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the reſt of the peninſula. Between Cambodia and Cochin China lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the weſtern China, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as ſome other ſmaller kingdoms, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-China; ſome particulars of which I have mentioned in the general view of this peninſula. The manners and religion of the people ſeem to be originally Chineſe; and they are much given to trade. Their king is ſaid to be immenſely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the Eaſt Indies; but this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are ſubject to the Chineſe emperor. It is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that all theſe rich countries were peopled from China, or at leaſt, that they had, ſome time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother-country became ſo large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reſerving to itſelf a kind of feudal ſuperiority over them all.

The government of Tonquin is particular. The Tonquineſe had revolted from the Chineſe, which occaſioned a civil war. A compromiſe at laſt took place between the chief of the revolt, and the repreſentative of the ancient kings, by which it was agreed that the former ſhould have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, ſhould retain the royal titles, and be permitted ſome inconſiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can ſtir without the permiſſion of the chouah.

The chouah reſides generally in the capital Cachao, which is ſituated near the centre of the kingdom. The bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure, and has a fine arſenal. The Engliſh have a very flouriſhing factory on the north-ſide of the city, conveniently provided with ſtore-houſes, and office-houſes, a noble dining room, and handſome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The above is the beſt account I have been able to give of this vaſt peninſula. Its rarities, conſiſting of houſes overlaid with gold, and ſolid idols of the ſame metal, adorned with an infinite number of precious ſtones and jewels, are mentioned by many travellers; but it is difficult to give them credit, when we conſider the undiſciplined weakneſs of the inhabitants, their ſuperſtition, indolence, ignorance, and native timidity; which muſt render them a prey not only to Europeana dventurers, but to the Tartar conquerors of China. To this we may add, the univerſally admitted paſſion of thoſe people for oſtentation, and the many diſcoveries that have been made by candid travellers, of their diſplaying plated or gilded furniture and ornaments, at which they are wonderfully expert, for thoſe of maſſy gold.

The poſſeſſion of rubies, and other precious ſtones of an extraordinary ſize, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, convey among thoſe credulous people a pre eminence of rank and royalty, and has ſometimes occaſioned bloody wars. After all, it muſt be acknowledged, that, however dark the accounts we have of thoſe kingdoms may be, yet there is ſufficient evidence to prove, that they are immenſely rich in all the treaſures of nature; but that thoſe advantages are attended

with many natural calamities, ſuch as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempeſts, and above all, rapacious and poiſonous animals, which render the poſſeſſion of life, even for an hour precarious and uncertain.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT; including the Peninſula weſt of the Ganges.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 Breadth 1500	between	7 and 40 north latitude. 66 and 92 eaſt longitude.		870,910.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Thibet, on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the Eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, on the South; by the ſame and Perſia, on the Weſt. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indoſtan, properly ſo called.

Grand Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north-eaſt diviſion of India, containing the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges and thoſe of the mountains of Naugracut.	Bengal Proper	Calcutta
		Fort William, Hoogly, Dacca } Engliſh
		Malda, Engliſh and Dutch
		Chatigan
		Caſſumbazar
	Naugracut	Naugracut
	Jeſuat	Rajapour
	Patna	Patna
	Necbal	Necbal
	Gore	Gore
	Rotas	Rotas
The north-weſt diviſion on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the river of Indus.	Soret	Jaganal
	Jeſſelmere	Jeſſelmere
	Tata, or Sinda	Tata
	Bucknor	Bucknor
	Moultan	Moultan
	Haican	Haican
	Cabul	Cabul
The middle diviſion.	Candiſh	Medipour
	Berar	Berar
	Chitor	Chitor
	Ratipor	Ratipor
	Navar	Navar
	Gualeor	Gualeor
	Agra *	Agra

* The eaſtern part of Agra between the Ganges and Jumna, is called the Doab, or country between the two rivers.

Grand

Grand Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The middle diviſion,	Delhi - -	Delhi, E. lon. 77-40. N. lat. 28-40.
	Lahor, or Pencah	Lahor
	Hendowns - -	Hendowns
	Caſſimere - -	Caſſimere
	Jengapour - -	Jengapour
	Aſmer, or Bando	Aſmer.

The Britiſh nation poſſeſſes in full ſovereignty the whole ſoubah of Bengal, and the greateſt part of Bahar. In Oriſſa, or Orixa, only the diſtricts of Midnapour. The whole poſſeſſions contain about 150,000 ſquare miles, and 10 millions of inhabitants. With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable courſe of the Ganges from its entry on the plains to the ſea, which, by its winding courſe, is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for ſix months from the ſouth, and ſix from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are exceſſively hot, but refreſhed by ſea breezes; and in ſome dry ſeaſons, the hurricanes, which tear up the ſands, and let them fall in dry ſhowers, are exceſſively diſagreeable. The Engliſh, and conſequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indoſtan, are commonly ſeized with ſome illneſs, ſuch as flux or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, eſpecially if the patients are abſtemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The moſt remarkable mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus and Naugracut, which divide India from Perſia, Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet, and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos.

The mountains named the Gauts, Gattes, or INDIAN APPENINE, and which extend from Cape Comorin to the Tapty, or Surat river, are alſo called *Balla-Gaut*, throughout their whole extent: meaning, literally, the *higher* or *upper Gauts* *. In the peninſula within the Ganges, this term is applied in contradiſtinction to Payen-Gaut, or the *lower-Gauts*: but in the Deccan, it appears to be uſed only as a proper name, and not as a correlative; we having never heard of the Deccan, Payen-Gaut.

This famous Appenine, which marks, with more preciſion perhaps than any other boundary whatever, the line of ſummer and winter, or rather of dry and wet, extends 13 degrees of latitude; that is, from Cape Comorin to Surat (with the exception of a valley or break in the continuity of the ridge of theſe mountains, oppoſite to Paniany) at unequal diſtances from the coaſt: ſeldom more than ſeventy miles, and commonly about forty: and within one ſhort ſpace only, it approaches within ſix miles. Although the altitude of theſe mountains is unknown, yet it is ſufficiently great to prevent the great body of clouds from paſſing over them; and accordingly the alternate N. E. and S. W. winds (called the monſoons) occaſion a rainy ſeaſon on one ſide of the mountains only; that is, on the windward ſide. It would appear, though, that clouds enough do paſs over, to occaſion a rainy ſeaſon, at a conſiderable diſtance to leeward, where thoſe clouds deſcend; as we may ſuppoſe them to do, although at the time they paſſed over the Gauts, they muſt neceſſarily have been too high, and of courſe too light, to condenſe and fall in rain there. This, I am led to conſider by Lieut. Ewart's account of the weather at Nagpour, in the very

* Gaut, or Ghaut, ſignifies either a paſs through mountains, or landing-place on the bank of a river. In the former ſenſe, the term has been applied to the Carnatic, which is divided by ridges of mountains abounding with paſſes and defiles.

centre of India; where the ſeaſons differ but little from their uſual courſe in Bengal, and on the weſtern ſide of India: that is, the S. W. monſoon occaſions a rainy ſeaſon: but the rains are not ſo violent, nor of ſuch long continuance, as in thoſe places. At the mouth of the God[illegible] river and its neighbourhood, the S. W. monſoon occaſions a rainy [illegible] alſo; and the Godaverry is then ſwoln and overflows: and this part is about as far to leeward of the Gauts, as Nagpour is. We may conclude then, that the ridge of the Gauts ſhelters a particular tract only; beyond which the light and elevated clouds that paſs over it deſcend in rain. Madras is within the limits of the ſheltered tract, though at leaſt three hundred miles to leeward of the Gauts: Rajamundry (near the mouth of the Godaverry) may be about five-hundred. It would be curious to know the exact limit of wet and dry.

If I miſtake not, until lately it was a general opinion, that the Gauts extended from the northern (or Bootan) mountains to Cape Comorin, and occaſioned a diverſity of ſeaſons, at one and the ſame time, throughout all India. But the truth is, that different ſeaſons exiſt at the ſame moment, only in a part of the peninſula: for the cauſe ceaſes in the parallel of Surat; where the S. W. wind, no longer oppoſed by a wall of mountains, carries its ſupplies of moiſture uninterruptedly, both far and near, over the * whole face of the country.

Rivers.] Theſe are the Indus and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and held in the higheſt eſteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. The Indus is by the natives called Sinde † or Sindeh, and is formed of about ten principal ſtreams which deſcend from the Perſian and Tartarian mountains on the north-eaſt and north-weſt. From the city of Attock down to Moultan, it is commonly ſtyled the River Attock; below Moultan it is often named the Soor, until it divides itſelf into many channels near Tatta, where the principal branch takes the name of Mehran. Theſe channels form and interſect a large triangular iſland, which they fertilize by their periodical inundations. The principal rivers it receives are the Behat, or Hydaſpes, and the Hyphaſis, which formed the eaſtern boundary of the conqueſts of Alexander.

The Ganges ‡, one of the fineſt rivers of the world, iſſues from Kentaiſſe, one of the vaſt mountains of Thibet, and after a courſe of about 750 miles, through mountainous regions little known, enters Indoſtan at the defile of Kupele, ſuppoſed by the natives to be its ſource. From hence this fine river, (which is revered by the Hindoos as a deity that is to waſh away all their ſtains) flows through delightful plains, with a ſmooth navigable ſtream, from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its courſe, which is about 1350 miles, to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two larger and a multitude of leſſer channels, that form and interſect a large triangular iſland, whoſe baſe at the ſea is near 200 miles in extent. The entire courſe of the Ganges is 2100 miles, and is to that of the Thames as 9½ to 1 §. The navigation

* Major Rennell's Memoir, p. 213, 214.

† The name of Sinde was not unknown to the Romans: *Indus incolis Sindus appellatus.* Pliny, Book vi.

‡ The proper name of this river, in the language of Hindooſtan (or Indoſtan), is *Pudda*, or *Padda*. It is alſo named *Burra Gonga*, or the Great River; and *Gonga* the River, by way of eminence; and from this, doubtleſs, the European names of the River are derived. Rennel's Memoir, 255.

§ The proportionable lengths of courſe, of ſome of the moſt noted rivers in the world, are ſhewn nearly by the following numbers:

European rivers —	Thames —	—	1
	Rhine —	—	5¾
	Danube —	—	7
	Wolga —	—	9½

Aſiatic

navigation of the eaſtern branch being dangerous, is little frequented. The weſtern branch, called the Little Ganges, or River of Hoogly, is navigable by large ſhips, and moſt generally reſorted to. The Ganges receives 11 rivers, ſome of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

Beſides theſe rivers, many others water this country, at the Bahet of Chelum, (the Hydaſpes of Alexander) the Jenau or the ancient Aceſines, or Beah, Setlege, Jumna, and the Rauvee, formerly the Hydraotes, on the ſouth bank of which ſtands the city of Lahor.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are the Indian Ocean; the bay of Bengal; the gulf of Cambaya; the ſtraits of Ramanakoel; Capes Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] To what was ſaid of their religion and ſects, in the general review of this great empire, we may add, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practiſing the greateſt auſterities; but many of them are impoſtors. Their number is ſaid to be 800,000. Another ſet of mendicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and are ſuppoſed to be twelve millions in number, but all of them vagabonds, who live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Banians, who are ſo called from their innocence of life, ſerve as brokers, and profeſs the Gentoo religion.

The Perſees, or Parſes, of Indoſtan, are originally the Gaurs, deſcribed in Perſia, an induſtrious people, particularly in weaving and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of the works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names, and which ſome Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw light upon ancient hiſtory both ſacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of thoſe books that have been publiſhed; but ſome are of opinion that the whole is a modern impoſture. The Gaurs pay divine adoration to fire, but it is ſaid, only as an emblem of the Divinity, and as his chief agent in the ſyſtem of the univerſe. They never extinguiſh fire. They will ſtand four hours by their lamp, putting up their prayers to God, with folded hands, and their eyes turned towards Heaven with great marks of devotion. They utter ejaculatory prayers all day long, and conſtantly mix buſineſs, and even common converſation, with devotion. They have a ſuperſtitious veneration for cocks and for dogs. They breed great numbers of dogs at their own houſes, and feed them regularly twice every day with rice and ghee. To all dogs, whether their own or not, they are very hoſpitable. Wherever they ſee a dog, they preſently call him, and offer him food. If you walk abroad with a dog in any of the Perſee villages, you preſently hear *jo! jo!* at every turn; every body ſtriving to be the firſt to entertain your dog. Dogs are alſo ſacred in all the Turkiſh dominions. The dogs on the iſland of Bombay, a few years ago, were many of them mad: whereupon an order was given by the

Aſiatic rivers	Indus (probably)	—	6½
	Euphrates	—	8½
	Ganges	—	9½
	Burrampooter	—	9½
	Nou Kian, or Ava River	—	9½
	Jenniſea	—	10
	Oby	—	10½
	Amoor	—	11
	Lena	—	11½
	Hoanho (of China)	—	13½
	Kian Keu (of ditto)	—	15½
African river	Nile	—	12½
American rivers	Miſſiſipi	—	8
	Amaſons	—	15¼

Rennell's Memoir, p. 254.

governor,

governor, for killing all dogs without exception. This order being known, the Perſees were greatly alarmed, met together, and entered into a ſolemn alliance in defence of their dogs, determined to protect their lives at the riſque of their own. It was therefore thought prudent, not to inſiſt on the execution of the decree that had been iſſued againſt thoſe faithful and affectionate domeſtics.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the ſports of the field. They affect ſhady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous muſic, both in wind and ſtring inſtruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houſes make no appearance, and thoſe of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chuſe to work in the open air; and the inſide of houſes belonging to the principal perſons are commonly neat, commodious, nay many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this article as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merchants carry on, in a particular ſpecies of veſſels called junks, a trade which has not been deſcribed; I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. The largeſt of theſe junks, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to viſit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of their cargoes for gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] The province of Agra is the largeſt in all Indoſtan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greateſt city, and its caſtle the largeſt fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the Engliſh have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewiſe the capital of Indoſtan. It is deſcribed as a fine city, and contains the imperial palace, which is adorned with the uſual magnificence of the Eaſt. Its ſtables formerly contained 12,000 horſes, brought from Arabia, Perſia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the ſeaſon, theſe horſes are ſaid to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and ſugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindy, is a large city; and it is ſaid that a plague which happened there in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in ſilk and cotton. It is ſtill famous for the manufacture of palanquins, a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repoſe when they appear broad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being uſually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at firſt coſt, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten ſhillings a month each, out of which they maintain themſelves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their ſituation, are enabled to deal with the Perſians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horſes. The capital is Moultan, about 800 miles, by the courſe of the river, from the ſea.

The province of Caſſimere, being ſurrounded with mountains, is difficult of acceſs, but when entered, it appears to be the paradiſe of the Indies. It is ſaid to contain 100,000 villages, to be ſtored with cattle and game, without any beaſts of prey. The capital (Caſſimere) ſtands by a large lake; and both ſexes, the women

eſpecially

eſpecially, are almoſt as fair as the Europeans, and are ſaid to be witty, dextrous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor, formerly made a great figure in the Indian hiſtory, and is ſtill one of the largeſt and fineſt in the Indies, producing the beſt ſugars of any in Indoſtan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indoſtan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who ſeem never to have been conquered; and though they ſubmit to the Moguls, live in an eaſy, independent ſtate. In ſome of thoſe provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive, as in their native ſoil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting to an Engliſh reader. Its natural ſituation, (as deſcribed by Major Rennel, late ſurveyor general in Bengal) is ſingularly happy with reſpect to ſecurity from the attack of foreign enemies. On the north and eaſt it hath no warlike neighbours, and hath moreover a formidable barrier of mountains, rivers, or extenſive waſtes towards thoſe quarters, ſhould an enemy ſtart up. On the ſouth is a ſea-coaſt guarded by ſhallows and impenetrable woods, and with only one port, which is of difficult acceſs, in an extent of 300 miles. Only on the weſt can an enemy be apprehended, but there the natural barrier is ſtrong, and with its population and reſources, and the uſual proportion of Britiſh troops, Bengal might bid defiance to any part of Indoſtan which was inclined to become its enemy. It is eſtimated to be the ſtore-houſe of the Eaſt Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, ſeſamum, ſmall mulberry and other trees. Its callicoes, ſilk, ſalt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world, and proviſions here are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce; and extends near 100 leagues on both ſides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, villages, and caſtles.

In Bengal, the worſhip of the Gentoos is practiſed in its greateſt purity; and their ſacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithſtanding their religion, are ſaid by ſome to be laſcivious and enticing.

Generally ſpeaking, the deſcription of one Indian city, is a deſcription of all; they being all built on one plan, with exceeding narrow, confined and crooked ſtreets; with an incredible number of reſervoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens interſperſed. A few of the ſtreets are paved with brick. The houſes are variouſly built: ſome of brick, others with mud, and a ſtill greater proportion with bamboos, and mats: and theſe different kinds of fabricks ſtanding intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance; thoſe of the latter kinds are invariably of one ſtory, and covered with thatch. Thoſe of brick ſeldom exceed two floors, and have flat, terraced roofs. The two former claſſes far out-number the laſt, which are often ſo thinly ſcattered, that fires, which often happen, do not ſometimes meet with the obſtruction of a brick houſe through a whole ſtreet.

Calcutta is in part an exception to this rule of building; for there the quarter inhabited by the Engliſh is compoſed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houſes; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greateſt part, is built as I have deſcribed the cities in general to be. Within theſe 20 or 25 years, Calcutta has been wonderfully improved, both in appearance and in the ſalubrity of its air; for the ſtreets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up; thereby removing a vaſt ſurface of ſtagnant water,

water, the exhalations from which were particularly hurtful. Calcutta is well known to be the emporium of Bengal, and the ſeat of the governor-general of India. It is a very extenſive and populous city, being ſuppoſed at preſent to contain, at leaſt, 500,000 inhabitants. Its local ſituation is not fortunate; for it has ſome extenſive muddy lakes, and a vaſt foreſt, cloſe to it. It is remarkable that the Engliſh have been more inattentive than other European nations, to the natural advantages of ſituation in their foreign ſettlements. It is a modern city, having riſen on the ſite of the village of Govindpour, about 90 years ago*.

The principal Engliſh factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, called Fort William, ſituate on the river Hoogley, the moſt weſterly branch of the Ganges. It is about 100 miles from the ſea; and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largeſt ſhips that viſit India. The fort itſelf is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable againſt diſciplined troops; but the ſervants of the Company have provided themſelves with convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itſelf has been long in poſſeſſion of the Company, an Engliſh civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company. But in 1773, an act of parliament was paſſed to regulate the affairs of the Eaſt India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act the governor-general and four counſellors were appointed and choſen by the parliament, with whom was veſted the whole civil and military government of the preſidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government, of all the territorial acquiſitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſo long as the Company ſhould remain poſſeſſed of them. The governor-general and council were alſo entruſted with the ſuperintendance of the preſidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correſpond with them. The governor-general and counſellors were likewiſe empowered to eſtabliſh a court of judicature at Fort William; to conſiſt of a chief juſtice, and three other judges to be named from time to time by his majeſty; theſe are to exerciſe all criminal, admiralty, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort William and its limits, and the factories ſubordinate thereto. But the eſtabliſhment of this ſupreme court does not appear to have promoted either the intereſts of the Eaſt India Company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention was paid to the manners and cuſtoms of the people; acts of great oppreſſion and injuſtice have been committed; and the ſupreme court has been a ſource of great diſſatisfaction, diſorder, and confuſion. For the ſubſequent regulations reſpecting the Eaſt India territories and company, we refer to our account of them in the hiſtory of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The nabob, or ſoubah, quarrelled with the company, and inveſted Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and ſome of the principal perſons of the place, threw themſelves, with their chief effects, on board the ſhips in the river; they who remained, for ſome hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they ſurrendered upon terms. The ſoubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, inſtead of obſerving the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief ſervant, and 145 Britiſh ſubjects, into a little but ſecure priſon, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet ſquare, and ſhut up from almoſt all communication of free air. Their miſeries during the night were in-

* Rennell's Memoir of his Map of Indoſtan, p. 58, 59.

expreſ-

expreſſible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the reſt dying of ſuffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenſy. Among thoſe ſaved was Mr. Holwell himſelf, who has written a moſt affecting account of the cataſtrophe. The inſenſible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had rooted the Engliſh out of his dominions; but the ſeaſonable arrival of admiral Watſon, and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with ſome difficulty, in poſſeſſion of the place; and the war was ſoon concluded by the battle of Plaſſy, gained by the colonel, and the death of the nabob Suraja Dowla, in whoſe place Mhir Jaffeir, one of his generals, and who had previouſly ſigned a ſecret treaty with Clive, to deſert his maſter, and amply reward the Engliſh, was advanced to the ſoubahſhip.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Muxadabad, or Moorſhedabad: Benares, lying in the ſame province, is the Gentoo univerſity, and celebrated for its ſanctity. This zemindary, which includes alſo the circars of Gazypeur and Chunar, conſtituted a part of the dominions of Oude till 1774, when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacks was transferred to the Engliſh.

Dacca is ſituated in the eaſtern quarter of Bengal, and beyond the principal ſtream of the Ganges, although a very capital branch of it runs under it. Few ſituations are better calculated for an inland emporium of trade, than this, as the Dacca river communicates with all the other inland navigations; and that not by a circuitous, but by a direct communication. It is the third city of Bengal in point of extent and population. It has a vaſt trade in muſlins; and manufactures the moſt delicate ones, among thoſe that are ſo much ſought after in Europe; and the cotton is produced within the province. Dacca has in its turn been the capital of Bengal, and that within the preſent century. There are the remains of a very ſtrong fortreſs in it; and, within theſe few years, there was near it a cannon of extraoadinary weight and dimenſions*; but it has ſince fallen into the river, together with the bank on which it reſted.

Chandenagore is the principal place poſſeſſed by the French in Bengal: it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though ſtrongly fortified, furniſhed with a garriſon of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the Engliſh admirals Watſon and Pococke, and colonel Clive, and alſo was obliged to ſurrender in the laſt war, but reſtored by the peace. Hoogly, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richeſt Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well-fortified factory. The ſearch for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogly, for about fifty miles farther. The other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, andMaldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

* As it may gratify the curioſity of ſome of our readers, we here inſert, from major Rennell, the dimenſions of this gun. The meaſures were taken by himſelf very carefully throughout. It was made of hammered iron; it being an immenſe tube formed of 14 bars, with rings of 2 or 3 inches wide driven over them, and hammered down into a ſmooth ſurface; ſo that its appearance was equal to the beſt executed piece of braſs ordnance, although its proportions were faulty.

Whole length - - -	22 feet	10½ inches.
Diameter at the breech -	3	3
—— 4 feet from the muzzle	2	10
—— the muzzle - -	2	2½
—— of the bore - -	1	3⅓

The gun contained 234,413 cubic inches of wrought iron: and conſequently weighed 64,814 pounds avoird poize, or about the weight of eleven 32 pounders. Weight of an iron ſhort for the gun pounds.

We know little concerning the province or ſoubah of Malva, which lies to the weſt of Bengal; Sindia and Holkar divide the largeſt part of it. The capital of the former is Ougein, and of Holkar, the city of Indoor. It is as fertile as the other provinces, and its chief city is Ratipor. The province of Kandiſh included that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhanpoor, a flouriſhing city, and it carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered ſtuffs. Cattack is the capital of Orixa, and lies in the only road between Bengal and the Northern circars, and belongs to the Berar Rajah Moodajee Booſla, whoſe dominions are very extenſive. Of the five Northern circars, Cicacole, Rajamundry, Ellore, and Condapilly are in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, and Gunton is in the hands of the Nizam.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the Peninſula Within the Ganges. Thoſe that lie to the ſouthward fall into the deſcription of the peninſula itſelf.

HISTORY.] The firſt invader whoſe expedition is authentically recorded of this extenſive and fruitful country was the famous Alexander of Macedon, and where the fortreſs of Rotas now ſtands on the banks of the Behat, he is ſuppoſed to have put in execution his ſtratagem for croſſing the river, whilſt the oppoſite ſhore was poſſeſſed by Porus. Zinghis Khan alſo directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor to forſake his capital. The ſeat of government was, indeed, often changed, ſometimes by neceſſity and at others by choice, as from Gazna to Delhi, to Lahore, to Agra, and to Canage. This laſt place was in the reign of Porus, and long afterwards. the capital of Indoſtan, but is now reduced to a middling town, though the ruins are of great extent *.

The next conqueror is Tamerlane, who croſſed the Indus nearly at the ſame place with Alexander, but long before Tamerlane, Mahometan princes had entered, made conqueſts, and eſtabliſhed themſeves in India. Valid, the ſixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who aſcended the throne in the 708th year of the Chriſtian æra, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conqueſts in India: ſo that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, ſon of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province ſeparated by mountains from the north-weſt parts of India, and ſituated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the ſword into Indoſtan in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Chriſtian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treaſures, demoliſhing temples, and murdering idolaters. The wealth found by him in Indoſtan is repreſented as immenſe. The ſucceſſors of this Mahmoud are called the dynaſty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themſelves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Koſrou Schah, the 13th and laſt prince of the Gaznavide race, was depoſed by Kuſſain Gauri, who founded the dynaſty of the Gaurides, which furniſhed five princes, who poſſeſſed nearly the ſame dominions as their predeceſſors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predeceſſor Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treaſures. But an Indian, who had been rendered deſperate by the pollutions and inſults to which he ſaw his gods and temples expoſed, made a vow to aſſaſſinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides ended in the year 1212, in the perſon of Mahmoud, ſucceſſor and

* Suppoſed to be the Paliobothra of the ancients. In the ſixth century it contained 30,000 ſhops, in which beetel-nut was ſold, and there were alſo 60,000 muſicians and ſingers, who paid a tax to government.

nephew to Scheabbedin, who was alſo cut off by aſſaſſins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, whoſe troops entered India at the end of the year 1398, deſcending more terrible than all its former inundations from the centre of the Indian Caucaſus. This invincible barbarian met with no reſiſtance ſufficient to juſtify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But, after an immenſe ſlaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himſelf lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges.

The hiſtory of the ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Indoſtan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variouſly repreſented; but all agree that they were magnificent and deſpotic princes, that they committed their provinces, as has been already obſerved, to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, by which their empire was often miſerably torn in pieces. It is worthy of obſervation, that the provinces of Indoſtan have ſeldom continued under one head during a period of twenty years, from the earlieſt hiſtory down to the reign of Acbar in the 16th century. Bengal, Guzerat, and other provinces, were in turn independent, and ſometimes the empire of Indoſtan was confined within the proper limits of the province itſelf. So that the hiſtory of it furniſhes an excellent leſſon to princes not to graſp at too extenſive dominion*. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indoſtan, and may be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the firſt who extended his dominion over the Peninſula Within the Ganges, which is at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and it is ſaid that ſome of his great officers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750. Aurengzebe ſeems to have left too much power to the governors of his diſtant provinces, and to have been to inattentive to prevent the effects of that dreadful deſpotiſm, which, while in his hands, preſerved the tranquility of his empire; but when it deſcended to his weak indolent ſucceſſors, occaſioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandſons diſputed the empire, which, after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was governed by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great Omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whoſe name was Furrukhſir, was governed, and at laſt enſlaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who uſurped his power ſo abſolutely, that, being afraid to puniſh them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whoſe place they raiſed a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of ſeventeen years of age, after impriſoning and ſtrangling Furrukhſir. The young emperor proved diſagreeable to the brothers, and being ſoon poiſoned, they raiſed to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indoſtan, whoſe anceſtors had entered into ſtipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field againſt the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil poſſeſſion of the empire, and died in 1719. He was ſucceed-

* Some parts of the empire were 1000 miles diſtant from the ſeat of government. The Engliſh conqueſts in India met thoſe of Tamerlane in a point equidiſtant from the mouths of the Ganges and Indus, in the year 1774, for they cloſed their campaign that year at Loldong, 1100 miles from Calcutta.

ed by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private meaſures with his great rajahs for deſtroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies by Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is ſaid, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himſelf againſt the brothers, and to proclaim himſelf ſoubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was aſſaſſinated by the emperor's order. The younger Seyd no ſooner underſtood what had happened, than he proclaimed the ſultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle enſued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is ſaid to have uſed his conqueſt with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the priſon from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewiſe a priſoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement; but the emperor took poſſeſſion of his vaſt riches. Seyd did not long ſurvive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himſelf to the ſame courſe of pleaſures that had been ſo fatal to his predeceſſors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed againſt the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almoſt made themſelves maſters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his ſoubahſhip, and was conſidered as the firſt ſubject in the empire. Authors are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwiſe Kouli Khan, the Perſian monarch, to invade Indoſtan. It is thought that he had intelligence of a ſtrong party formed againſt him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have ſucceſs, and at firſt wanted to make himſelf uſeful by oppoſing him. The ſucceſs of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immenſe treaſure which he carried from Indoſtan in 1739. Beſides thoſe treaſures, he obliged the Mogul to ſurrender to him all the lands to the weſt of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyſhor, Cabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf.

This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, ſome accounts, and thoſe ſtrongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it will, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire. Nadir, however, having raiſed all the money he could in Delhi, re-inſtated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the ſovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ſoon after enſued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-weſt of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being aſſaſſinated in 1747, Achmet Abdalla, his treaſurer, an unprincipled man, but poſſeſſed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confuſion occaſioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himſelf at the head of an army, and march againſt Delhi with fifty thouſand horſe. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi, made the means of continuing thoſe miſeries of war which it had at firſt occaſioned. In this extremity, prince Ahmed Shah, the Mogul's eldeſt ſon, and the vizier, with other leading men, took the field, with eighty thouſand horſe, to oppoſe the invader. The war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His ſon, Ahmed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary, and Candahar is the capital.

The

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, poſſeſſing the ſouth-weſtern peninſula of India *, had, before the invaſion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout, or tribute from the empire, ariſing out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being with-held, in conſequence of the enfeebled ſtate of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires † and to diſtricts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every ſpecies of domeſtic confuſion. Ahmed Shah reigned only ſeven years, after which much more diſorder and confuſion prevailed in this country, and the people ſuffered great calamities. At preſent, the imperial dignity of Indoſtan is veſted in Shah Allum or Zadah, who is univerſally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a ſmall territory round it, is all that is left remaining to the houſe and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the Engliſh, whoſe intereſt it is to ſupport him, as his grant to the company is the beſt legal guarantee of their poſſeſſions.

We ſhall now conclude the hiſtory of Indoſtan with ſome account of the Britiſh tranſactions, in that part of the world, ſince 1765, when they were quietly ſettled in the poſſeſſion of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa; not indeed as abſolute ſovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This ſtate of tranquility, however, did not long continue; for in 176- they found themſelves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the ſovereign of Myſore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and, in the year 1753, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in their ſervice. In 176 , having been advanced to the command of the army of Myſore, he depoſed his ſovereigns, and uſurped the ſupreme authority under the title of regent. In a ſhort time he extended his dominions on all ſides, except the Carnatic, until at laſt his dominions equalled the iſland of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not leſs than four millions ſterling annually. The diſcords which took place in various parts of Indoſtan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandiſe himſelf in ſuch a manner, that his power ſoon became formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767, he found himſelf in danger of being attacked on one ſide by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the Britiſh. The former were bought off with a ſum, of money, and the latter were in conſequence obliged to retire. Having ſoon, however, aſſembled all their forces, ſeveral obſtinate engagements took place; and the Britiſh now, for the firſt time, found a ſteady oppoſition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various ſucceſs during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a ſtrong detachment of his army, paſſing by that of the Britiſh, advanced within a little diſtance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly loſt by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a moſt dreadful defeat, almoſt his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the neceſſity of allowing his enemies to deſolate

* Malwa, Berar Oriſſa, Candeiſh, and Viſipour, the principal part of Amednagur or Dowlatabad, half of Guzerat, and a ſmall part of Agimere, Agra, and Allahabad are comprized within their extenſive empire, which extends from ſea to ſea acroſs the wideſt part of the peninſula, and from the confines of Agra northward to the Kiſtna ſouthward, forming a tract of about 1000 miles long, and 700 wide. This extenſive country is divided among a number of chiefs, whoſe obedience to the Paiſhwah, or Head, is merely nominal, and they are often at war among themſelves, and alſo with their head. Their power hath been on the decline for the laſt twenty years.

† Jaſhire means a grant of land from a ſovereign to a ſubject, revokable at pleaſure; but generally, or almoſt always, for a life-rent.

the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perſeverance and diligence, ſo that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made ſome attempts to get poſſeſſion of the provinces of Corah and ſome others, but were oppoſed by the Britiſh; who, next year, defeated and drove them acroſs the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occaſion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowlaw, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promiſed to pay 40 lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but when the money came to be paid, it was under various pretences refuſed; the conſequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the Britiſh, as well as ſeveral other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced to the weſtward, within 25 miles of Agra; north-weſtward to the upper part of the navigable courſe of the Ganges; and ſouth-weſtward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occaſion a brigade, conſiſting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by Britiſh officers, traverſed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the weſtern ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting aſſiſtance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For ſome time he carried every thing before him, and, having the good fortune to defeat, or rather deſtroy a detachment of the Britiſh army under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have ſoon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of ſir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progreſs of this formidable adverſary was ſtopped, and he ſoon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expence to himſelf, without any reaſonable proſpect of ſucceſs. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was ſincerely deſirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a concluſion; and his rival, ſir Eyre Coote, did not ſurvive him above five months; a very remarkable circumſtance that the commanders in chief of two armies, oppoſed to each other, ſhould both die natural deaths, within ſo ſhort a ſpace of time.

It is, however, the intereſt of the Eaſt India company, that their governments in India ſhould interfere as little as poſſible in the domeſtic or national quarrels of the country powers, and that they ſhould always endeavour to be in a ſtate of peace and tranquillity with their neighbours. But theſe maxims of ſound policy they have not adhered to; their governors and ſervants having unneceſſarily, and ſometimes very iniquitouſly, embroiled themſelves with the country powers, and engaged in wars of a very pernicious and indefenſible nature. The wars into which they have entered with the Mahrattas, and with that enterprizing prince, Hyder Ally, now dead, but ſucceeded by a warlike ſon, Tippoo Saib, have been attended with an enormous expence, and been extremely prejudicial to the intereſts of the company and the nation at home. By temporary plans of violence and injuſtice, and ſometimes diſregarding their own treaties, they have forfeited the good opinion of the natives, and by exciting the indignation of the country princes againſt them, greatly leſſened the ſecurity of the poſſeſſions of the company.

The emperor of Indoſtan, or Great Mogul (ſo called from being deſcended from Tamerlane the Mongul, or Mogul Tartar), on his advancement, to the throne, aſſumes ſome grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the World; the Ornament of the Throne, &c.*" but he is never crowned.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
The south-east coast of India, situate on the Bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel.	Madura	Madura	16,400
	Tanjore	Tanjore	33,550
		Tranquebar, Danes	
		Negapatam, English	
	East side of Bisnagar, or Carnatic	Bisnagar	
		Porta-nova, Dutch	
		Fort St. David, English	
		Pondicherry, Conymere, French	
		Coblon	
		Sadraspatan, Dutch	
		St. Thomas, Portuguese	
		Fort St. George, or Madras, E. lon. 80-25 N. lat. 13-5. English	
		Pullicate, Dutch	
	Golconda	Golconda	62,100
		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines	
		Massulipatam, English and Dutch	
		Visagapatam, English	
		Bimlipatan, Dutch	
	Orissa	Cattack	
		Balasore, English	
The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	West side of Bisnagar, or Carnatic	Tegapatan, Dutch	83,040
		Anjengo, English	
		Cochin, Dutch	
		Callicut, Tellichery, English	
		Cannonore, Dutch	
		Mangalore, Barcelore, Dutch and Portuguese	
		Raolconda, diamond mine	
	Deccan, or Visiapour	Cawar, English	
		Goa, Portuguese	
		Rajapore, French	
		Dabul, English	
		Dundee, Shoule, Portuguese	
		Bombay, isle and town, English, 18-58. N. lat. 72-40 E. lon.	
		Basseen, Portuguese	
		Salsette, English	

Grand Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar,	Cambaya, or Guzerat	Damon, Portugueſe
		Surat, E. lon. 72-50 N. lat. 21-11
		Swalley
		Barak, Engliſh and Dutch
		Amedabad
		Cambaya
		Dieu, Portugueſe.

RIVERS.] The Cattack, or Mahanada, the mouths of which have never been traced; the Soane and Nerbudda; the Puddai and Godavery, which laſt is eſteemed a ſacred river; and the famous Kiſtna, a principal branch of which paſſes within 30 miles eaſt of Poonah, where it is named Beurah, and alſo eſteemed a ſacred river.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to ſouth, renders it winter on one ſide of this peninſula, while it is ſummer on the other. About the end of June, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, which with continual rains, laſts four months, during which time all is ſerene upon the coaſt of Coromandel (the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts being ſo denominated.) Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon, and the change of the monſoon, begins on the Coromandel coaſt, which being deſtitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there, during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot in this peninſula, but is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt. The produce of the ſoil is the ſame with that of the other parts of the Eaſt Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, and noxious creatures and inſects.

The Teek foreſts, (obſerves major Rennell, in his Memoir, p. 180, 181.) from whence the marine yard at Bombay is furniſhed with that excellent ſpecies of ſhip-timber, lie along the weſtern ſide of the Gaut mountains, and other contiguous ridges of hills, on the north and north-eaſt of Baſſeen: the numerous rivulets that deſcend from them, affording water-carriage for the timber. We cannot help remarking the unpardonable negligence we are guilty of, in delaying to build teek ſhips of war for the uſe of the Indian ſeas. They might be freighted home, without the ceremony of regular equipment, as to maſts, ſails, and furniture; which might be calculated juſt to anſwer the purpoſe of the home-paſſage, at the beſt ſeaſons; and crews could be provided in India. The letter ſubjoined in a note, and which was written with the beſt intentions nine or ten years ago, will explain the circumſtances of the caſe *. Teek

* "Frequent have been the opportunities I have had, of obſerving how very rapid the decay of ſhips built of European timber is, in the Eaſt Indies: and, on the contrary, how durable the ſhips are that are built of the wood of that country, namely, the TEEK: which may not improperly be ſtyled INDIAN-OAK. The number of ſhips of war that were ruined in thoſe ſeas, during the late war (1757 to 1762) may be admitted as a proof of the former remark; and the great age of the ſhips built in India, may ſerve to prove the latter. What I mean to infer from this, for your lordſhip's uſe, is, that ſhips of war, under third rates, may be conſtructed in India; and with moderate repairs, laſt for ages: whereas, a ſhip of European conſtruction can remain there but a very few years; to which diſadvantage, may be added, that of loſing, in the mean time, the ſervices of the ſhips that are ſent to relieve the worn out ones.

"Bengal produces iron and hemp; and the neighbouring foreſts, pine maſts: nothing is wanted to bring all theſe into uſe, but a fit opportunity, and proper encouragement.

"Auguſt 20, 1788."

ſhips

ſhips of forty years old and upwards, are no uncommon objects in the Indian ſeas, while an European built ſhip is ruined there in five years. The ſhips built at Bombay are the beſt, both in point of workmanſhip and materials, of any that are conſtructed in India: and although 4th rates only are mentioned in the letter, there is no doubt but that 3d rates may be conſtructed as there is a choice of timber. The Spaniards build capital ſhips in their foreign ſettlements. The Eaſt India company have a Teek ſhip on her fourth voyage at preſent; which ſhip has wintered in England: therefore any objection founded on the effects of froſt, on the Teek timber, is done away."

Bilſah, which is almoſt the heart of India, affords tobacco of the moſt delicate kind, throughout that whole region *.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion than thoſe of the other peninſula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which make ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendants of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greateſt part of them have but a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indoſtan, whoſe tribute from hence has been, ever ſince the invaſion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government: but beſides thoſe ſoubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to the rajahs, or lords, who are the deſcendants of their old princes, and regard themſelves as independent on the Mogul, and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. From what has been ſaid above, this peninſula is rather to be divided into great governments, or ſoubahſhips, than into provinces. One ſoubah often engroſſes ſeveral provinces, and fixes the ſeat of his government according to his own conveniency. I ſhall ſpeak of thoſe provinces as belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coaſt, the two great objects of Engliſh commerce in that country; and firſt, of the eaſtern, or Coromandel coaſt.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the ſouthernmoſt point of the peninſula. It is about the bigneſs of the kingdom of Portugal, and is ſaid to have been governed by a ſovereign king, who had under him ſeventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax; now, the caſe is much altered, the prince of the country being ſcarcely able to protect himſelf and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off: the capital is Tritchinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom ſeems to conſiſt in a pearl fiſhery upon its coaſt. Tanjore is a little kingdom, lying to the eaſt of Madura. The ſoil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and ſome Britiſh ſubjects connected with him. Within it lies the Daniſh Eaſt India ſettlement of Tranquebar, and the fortreſs of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the laſt war, and confirmed to the Engliſh, by the late treaty of peace. The capital city is Tanjore, governed by a rajah under the Engliſh protection.

The Carnatic is bounded on the eaſt by the bay of Bengal, on the north by the river Kiſtna, which divides it from Golconda; on the weſt by Viſapur, or Viſipour, and, on the ſouth by the kingdoms of Meſſaur and Tanjore; being in length from ſouth to north, about 345 miles. If Tanjore, Marrawar, Tritchinopoly, Madura, and Tinevelly be included, and they are all appendages of the Carnatic, the length thereof from north to ſouth is 570 miles, but no where more than 110 wide,

* A difference of opinion ſeems to have ariſen among the learned, whether tobacco came originally from Aſia or America. It was poſſibly indigenous to both continents. It is univerſally diſſeminated over Indoſtan, and China: and appears to have been in uſe ſo long, in the former, that it is not regarded as a new plant. It is there named *Tambra patra*; that is, the copper, or copper coloured leaf.

and chiefly no more than 80. The capital of the Carnatic is Biſnagar, and of our ally the Nabob of Arcot, whoſe dominions commence on the ſouth of the Guntoo circar, and extend along the whole coaſt of Coromandel to Cape Comorin. The country in general is eſteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coaſt, lies fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the Engliſh, with a diſtrict round it. The fort is ſtrong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, the emporium of the French in the Eaſt Indies, which hath been repeatedly taken by the Engliſh, and as often reſtored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company's dominions in that part of the Eaſt Indies, and is diſtant eaſtward from London about 4800 miles. Great complaints had been made of the ſituation of this fort; but no pains have been ſpared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought againſt it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their ſeveral inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an Engliſh corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badneſs of its ſituation, which ſeems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, that are but a week's journey diſtant. Theſe mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeaſurement, encloſing the contents by palliſadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The diſtrict belonging to Madras doth not extend much more than forty miles round, and is of little value for its product. Eighty thouſand inhabitants of various nations are ſaid to be dependent upon Madras; but its ſafety conſiſts in the ſuperiority of the Engliſh by ſea. It carries on a conſiderable trade with China, Perſia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not to be informed of the immenſe fortunes acquired by the Engliſh upon this coaſt within thirty years; but ſome of theſe fortunes appear to have been obtained by the moſt iniquitous practices. There ſeems to have been ſome fundamental errors in the conſtitution of the Eaſt India Company. The directors conſidered the riches acquired by their governors and other ſervants as being plundered from the company, and accordingly ſent out ſuperintendants to control their governors and overgrown ſervants, and have from time to time changed their governors and members of the council there. As this is a ſubject of the greateſt importance that ever perhaps occured in the annals of a commercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The Engliſh Eaſt India Company, through the diſtractions of the Mogul empire, the enterpriſing ſpirit of their military officers, and the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh navy, acquired an income in this peninſula, and in Indoſtan, that is ſuperior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and ſome of their own ſervants pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions ſterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while ſuffered to enjoy their dominions. How their revenue is collected, or from whence it ariſes, is beſt known to the company: part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it ſecured on mortgages, for diſcharging their expences in ſupporting the intereſts of their friends, the emperor, and the reſpective ſoubahs and nabobs they have aſſiſted.

The company has exerciſed many rights appropriated to ſovereignty; ſuch as thoſe of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Theſe powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the Engliſh miniſtry and parliament have repeatedly interfered, and at length have eſtabliſhed a board of control at home. It is hoped that, in conſequencesof this

inſtitution, ſuch meaſures may be taken with the Eaſtern princes and potentates, as may render the acquiſitions of the company permanent and national.

I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golconda, which, beſides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapneſs of its proviſions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is ſubject to a prince, called the Nizam or ſoubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raiſe 100,000 men. The famous diamond mine, Raolconda, is in this province. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagar, or Hyderabad; but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda, and comprizes the eaſtern part of Dowletabad. Eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Golconda lies Maſulipatam, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factories. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Ganjam and Viſagapatam, on this coaſt; and the Dutch at Narſipore. The province of Oriſſa, from whence the Engliſh company draw ſome part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from eaſt to weſt about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booſlah, and his brother Bembajee, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province ſtands the idolatrous temple of Jagernaut, which they ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black ſtone, of about 4 or 500 lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to repreſent eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermilion.

Major Rennell obſerves, that there is a void ſpace between the known parts of Berar, Golconda, Oriſſa, and the northern circars, of near 300 miles in length, and 250 in breadth, and that it is not likely to be filled up unleſs a great change takes place in European politics in India. Our poſſeſſions in the northern circars extend only 70 miles by land, and in ſome places not more than 30, which forms a ſlip of 350 miles in length, bounded towards the continent by a ridge of mountains. Within theſe, and towards Berar, is an extenſive tract of woody and mountainous country, with which the adjacent provinces appear to have ſcarcely any communication. Though ſurrounded by people highly civilized, and who abound in uſeful manufactures, it is ſaid, that the few ſpecimens of the miſerable inhabitants of this tract who have appeared in the circars, uſe no covering but a wiſp of ſtraw. This wild country extends about 160 miles, and the firſt civilized people beyond them are the Berar Mahrattas.

The country of the Deccan * comprehends ſeveral large provinces, and ſome kingdoms; particularly thoſe of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Viſiapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and governments of thoſe provinces, are extremely unſettled; and ſince their reduction by Aurengzebe, or his father, have been ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their exact ſituation and extent, but by the aſſiſtance of major Rennell's late Memoirs, of a Map of Indoſtan, and his new drawings, we have gratified our readers with a new map of the country, which we hope will be found clear and accurate. The principal towns are Aurungabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlatabad; the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in all Indoſtan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain of about two leagues ſquare. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thouſand figures that ſurround it, are ſaid to be cut out of the natural rock, and to ſurpaſs all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the eaſt of Golconda, and its capital, Beder, contains a

* The name DECCAN ſignifies the SOUTH, and, in its moſt extenſive ſignification, includes the whole peninſula ſouth of Indoſtan Proper. However, in its ordinary acceptation, it means only the countries ſituated between Indoſtan Proper, the Carnatic, and Oriſſa; that is the provinces of Candeiſh, Amednagur, Viſiapour, and Oriſſa. Rennell's Introduction to his Memoir of his Map of Indoſtan, p. cxii.

garriſon of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province ſpeak a language peculiar to themſelves.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is ſaid to contain 35 cities. Amedabab is the capital of the province, where there is an Engliſh factory, and is ſaid, in wealth, to vie with the richeſt towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues diſtant lies Surat, where the Engliſh have a flouriſhing factory.

Viſiapour is a large province, the weſtern part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portugueſe poſſeſſions. The rajah of Viſiapour is ſaid to have had a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to have brought into the field 150,000 ſoldiers. The capital is of the ſame name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coaſt are, Daman, Baſſaim Trapor, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahpur, Dabul-Rajahpur, Gheriah, and Vingorla. The Portugueſe have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, and thoſe which remain are on the decline.

Among the iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt is that of Bombay, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India Company. Its harbour can conveniently contain 1000 ſhips at anchor. The iſland itſelf is about ſeven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its ſituation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being deſtitute of almoſt all the conveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to Engliſh conſtitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preſervatives againſt its unwholeſomeneſs; the beſt water there is preſerved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy ſeaſons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of ſtone. Many black merchants reſide here. This iſland was part of the portion paid with the infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the Eaſt India Company; and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman-catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueſe, and what are called popiſh Meſtizos and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueſe, and the other aborigines of the country. The Engliſh have fallen upon methods to render this iſland and town, under all their diſadvantages, a ſafe, if not an agreeable reſidence. The reader ſcarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative poſts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the iſland are commanded by Engliſh officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and diſciplined, are here, and all over the Eaſt Indies, called Seapoys. The inhabitants of the iſland amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted. Here, beſides Europeans of all countries, you meet with Turks, Perſians, Arabians, Armenians, a mixed race, the vileſt of their ſpecies, deſcended from the Portugueſe, and the outcaſts from the Gentoo religion, &c. and alſo captives that are ſlaves to every other tribe. The Turks that reſort to this place on account of trade, are, like the reſt of their countrymen, ſtately, grave, and reſerved. The Perſians are more gay, lively and converſible, but leſs honeſt in matters of trade than the ſaturnine Turks. The Arabians are all life and fire, and when they treat with you on any ſubject, will make you a fine oration in flowing numbers, and a muſical cadence; but they are the moſt diſhoneſt of all. The Armenians are generally handſome in their features, mild in their tempers, and in their nature kind and beneficent. They are a kind of Chriſtians, and an honour to that ſect, beyond many that go from England.

Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which called Elephanta, contains the moſt inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural ſize, cut coarſely in ſtone, preſents itſelf on the landing-

place,

place, near the bottom of a mountain. An eaſy ſlope then leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portugueſe. Beſides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the ſtone; one of the latter bearing a rude reſemblance of the judgment of Solomon; alſo a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of reſemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The iſland and city of Goa, the capital of the Portugueſe ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies, lies about thirty miles ſouth of Vingorla. The iſland is about twenty-ſeven miles in compaſs. It has one of the fineſt and beſt fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, ſurpaſſed in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is the reſidence of a captain general ſent from Portugal, who lives in great ſplendour. The city ſtands upon the banks of a river of the ſame name, about twelve miles diſtant from the entrance of the harbour: the view up this river is truly delightful, the banks on either ſide are adorned with churches and country ſeats of the Portugueſe, interſperſed with groves and vallies. The river has ſeveral pleaſing openings as it winds along, its banks are low, but the hills behind riſe to an amazing height, and add grandeur to the ſpectacle, greatly tending alſo to beautify the proſpect. The city of Goa itſelf is adorned with many fine churches, magnificently decorated; and has ſeveral handſome convents; the church of St. Auguſtine is a noble ſtructure, and is adorned in the inſide by many fine pictures. It ſtands on the top of a hill, from whence you have an extenſive view of the city and adjacent country: it is a circumſtance that has always been obſerved, and very juſtly, that the Portugueſe have ever choſen the ſpots for their convents and churches in the moſt delightful ſituations. The body of this church is ſpacious, and the grand altar-piece finiſhed in the moſt elegant ſtyle. The building of the choir is of Gothic architecture, and therefore of antiquity. The church has a convent adjoining to it, in which live a ſet of religious monks, of the order of St. Auguſtine: ſome of the brothers of this convent have given popes and cardinals to the Roman ſee, as appears by their portraits which are hung up in a neat chapel.

It is ſaid that the revenues of the Jeſuits, upon this iſland, equalled thoſe of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the reſt of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions on this coaſt, are under a viceroy, who ſtill keeps up the remains of the ancient ſplendor of the government. It is, however, much on the decline, and in little or no eſtimation with the country powers; indeed their bigotry and ſuperſtitious attachment to their faith is ſo general, that the inhabitants, formerly populous, are now reduced to a few thinly inhabited villages; they will not ſuffer any Muſſulman or Gentoo to live within the precincts of the city. If other meaſures are not purſued, Goa muſt in a very few years ſink to nothing. Though it is evident that the internal decay of the government has been ſo occaſioned by the oppreſſion and bigotry of the prieſts, and the expulſion of many uſeful hands; yet the court of Portugal cannot be prevailed upon to alter its meaſures, although the flouriſhing ſituation of the Engliſh and other European ſettlements (and of which one cauſe is certainly the mild and tolerant principles adhered to in points of religion, provided it interferes not with the affairs of government), is continually before their eyes. The nabob Tippoo has lately ſhewn an inclination to attack them, but was ſuddenly called off by the Mahrattas. The Portugueſe much fear he will return; and ſhould he, there is little doubt but that the place will ſurrender to him. There was formerly an inquiſition at this place,

but it is now aboliſhed; the building ſtill remains, and by its black outſide, appears a fit emblem of the cruel and bloody tranſactions that paſſed within its walls! The rich peninſula of Salvett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies ſouth of the Portugueſe territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul.

Canoree lies about forty miles to the ſouth of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its ſoil is famous for producing rice, that ſupplies many parts of Europe, and ſome of the Indies. The Canorines are ſaid generally to be governed by a lady, whoſe ſon has the title of rajah; and her ſubjects are accounted the braveſt and moſt civilized of any in that peninſula, and remarkably given to commerce.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the company formerly made a peace, but with whom their ſervants ſoon after embroiled them, and who lately made a violent irruption into the Carnatic, took manyof its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the concluſion of the war, is ſaid to have been a native of Myſore, which lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Carnatic; and the Chriſtians of the apoſtle St. Thomas live at the foot of the Gauti mountains.

The dominions of Tippoo Saib, ſon of Hyder Ally, comprehend generally the provinces of Myſore, Bednore, Zaimbetore, Zanaree, and Dindigal, beſides his acquiſition to the northward from the Mahrattas: they are at leaſt 400 miles in length, and in the breadth from 290 to 130, ſo that he hath the largeſt ſhare in the peninſula.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula, yet it is confined at preſent to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of Cape Comorin, and called the dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the couutry itſelf is rich and fertile, but peſtered with green adders, whoſe poiſon is incurable. The moſt remarkable places in Malabar are Cranganore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; and Tellicherry, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, keeping a conſtant garriſon of one battalion of ſeapoys, a company of artillery, and ſometimes a company of European infantry; they are alſo able to raiſe about three thouſand native militia. The view of the country round Tellicherry is very pleaſant, conſiſting of irregular hills and vallies. The boundaries of the Engliſh are terminated by the oppoſite ſide of the river, and at a very little diſtance is a ſtrong fortreſs of Tippoo. Tellicherry is eſtemed by all who reſide there to be one of the healthieſt places in India, Europeans ſeldom dying there. It is alſo much reſorted to by convaleſcents. I obſerved, (ſays Mr. Franklin) in the company's garden, the pepper vine, which grows in a curious manner, and ſomething ſimilar to the grape. The pepper on it, when fit to gather, appears in ſmall bunches; it is in ſize ſomething larger than the head of a ſmall pea; the pepper, however, for the company's ſhips cargoes, is brought from ſome diſtance in the country. Tellicherry produces the coffee-tree. Calicut alſo deſerves to be mentioned, where the French and Portugueſe have ſmall factories, beſides various other diſtinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the ſouthernmoſt part of this peninſula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the ſame garden the two ſeaſons of the year; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on the one ſide, while on other ſide they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This ſurpriſing phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains ſo often mentioned, which traverſe the whole peninſula from ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are conſtantly at variance, blowing from the weſt on the weſt ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

It may be proper to obſerve, that in the diſtrict of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found ſome thouſands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and

to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are ſaid to be ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. Diſcoveries of Jews and their records have likewiſe been made in China, and other places of Aſia, which have occaſioned various ſpeculations among the learned.

Having in the preceding diviſion of India conſidered it as compriſing three great parts; firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the farther Peninſula; ſecondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninſula within or on this ſide the Ganges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extenſive empires: having alſo in the above arrangement obſerved that method we have laid down for ourſelves in delineating the other kingdoms of the earth, beginning with the more northerly, and ſo proceeding regularly towards the ſouthern, we now think it neceſſaryto introduce to the knowledge of our readers the preſent manner in which the two latter diviſions of India, under the title of Indoſtan, have been marked out, according to the powers or princes, who are reſpectively in poſſeſſion of them.

The celebrated Perſian uſurper Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treaſure to the amount of more than 70 millions ſterling, reſtored the unhappy prince his dominions, but annexed to Perſia all the countries weſtward of the Indus.

This dreadful incurſion ſo weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the Eaſt India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted as traders, to form eſtabliſhments on the coaſts: theſe, from the great ſuperiority of European diſcipline, from allies became in a ſhort time principals in an obſtinate conteſt, that at length terminated in the expulſion of the French from Indoſtan; and thus a company of Britiſh merchants have acquired, partly by ceſſions from the country powers, and partly by injuſtice and uſurpation, teritories equal in extent, and ſuperior in wealth and population to moſt of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally poſſeſſed ſeveral provinces of Indoſtan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly ſubjected, but retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent incurſions from theſe inacceſſible mountains; taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at preſent poſſeſſed of a tract of country 1000 Britiſh miles long, by 700 wide.

Hyder Ally *, a ſoldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having poſſeſſed himſelf of that part of the ancient Carnatic, called the kingdom of Myſore, has within a few years acquired, by continual conqueſts, a conſiderable portion of the ſouthern part of the peninſula. This able and active prince, the moſt formidable enemy that the Engliſh ever experienced in Indoſtan, dying in 1783,

* The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (ſays major Rennell) to be but little underſtood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an outline of it. His military ſucceſs, founded on the improvement of diſcipline; attention to merit of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that ſerved under his banners; contempt of ſtate and ceremony, except what naturally aroſe from the dignity of his character; and his conſequent oeconomy in perſonal expences (the different habits of which, form the chief diſtinction of what is called character among ordinary princes), together with his minute attention to matters of finance, and the regular payment of his army; all theſe together raiſed Hyder as far above the princes of Indoſtan, as the great qualities of the late Pruſſian monarch raiſed him above the generality of European princes: hence I have ever conſidered Hyder as the FREDERIC of the Eaſt. Cruelty was the vice of Hyder; but we are to conſider that Hyder's ideas of mercy were regulated by an Aſiatic ſtandard; and it is not improbable that he might rate his own character for moderation and clemency, as far above thoſe of Tamerlane, Nadir Shah, and Abdallah, as he rated his diſcipline above theirs.

left

leſt to his ſon Tippoo Saib the peaceful poſſeſſion of his dominions ſuperior in extent to the kingdom of England.

Theſe extraordinary revolutions, with others of leſs importance, render the following account of the preſent diviſion of property in this unhappy empire abſolutely neceſſary, in order to underſtand its modern hiſtory.

PRESENT DIVISION OF INDOSTAN.

Such is the inſtability of human greatneſs, that the preſent Mogul, Shaw Allum, the deſcendant of the Great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Indoſtan: he is permitted to reſide at Delhi, which with a ſmall adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vaſt empire which his anceſtors governed for more than 350 years.

The principal diviſions of this country, as they ſtood in 1782, are as follow, viz. The Britiſh poſſeſſions; ſtates in alliance with Britain; Tippoo Saib's territories; Mahratta ſtates and their tributaries; and the territories of the ſubah of the Deccan.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The Britiſh poſſeſſions contain about 150,000 ſquare Britiſh miles, (which is about 18,000 more than is contained in Great Britain and Ireland) and about 10 millions of inhabitants. They conſiſt of three diſtinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal, -	Bengal Subah Bahar Subah Benares Subah	On the Ganges.
	Northern Circars	On the coaſt of Oriſſa
Government of Madras -	The Jaghire Territory of Cuddalore ———of Devicotta ———of Negapatam	On the coaſt of Coromandel.
Government of Bombay		On the Gulf of Cambay.

GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government was rich, flouriſhing, and populous, before the late uſurpations in Indoſtan. It is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter with their numerous navigable channels, and the ſeveral navigable rivers they receive; it is fertilized by their periodical inundations; and by its natural ſituation is well ſecured againſt foreign enemies. But for a more particular deſcription of this province, we refer our readers to the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defects of this government are not only the wants of connection between its parts, which are ſcattered along an extenſive coaſt, and ſeparated from each other by ſtates frequently hoſtile, but being totally devoid of good harbours: hopes however have been entertained of removing this laſt defect, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the ſea at Devicotta. The capital and ſeat of government is MADRAS in the Jaghire, called alſo Fort St. George. It is ill-ſituated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants. —Fort. St. DAVID in the territory of Cuddalore is rich, flouriſhing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants. —MASULIPATAM, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kiſtna, was formerly the moſt flouriſhing and commercial city on this coaſt, and though much declined, is ſtill conſiderable.

The

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapili, are defended inland by a ſtrong barrier of mountains and extenſive foreſts, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a conſiderable ſpace.

GOVERNMENT of BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and ſeat of government is BOMBAY, in a ſmall iſland and an unhealthy ſituation; but it is well-fortified, and has a fine harbour.—SURAT on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the moſt rich and commercial cities in Indoſtan. TELLICHERRY, on the Malabar coaſt, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the Nabob of Oude	Fyzabad Lucknow
Dominions of the Nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eaſtern part only of the Ancient Carnatic.	Arcot on the Paliar is the capital, though the nabob uſually reſides at Madras Gingee, the ſtrongeſt Indian fortreſs in the Carnatic. Tritchinapoly near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almoſt ruined by the numerous ſieges it has ſuſtained. Seringham Pagoda, in an iſland of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indoſtan for its ſanctity, and has no leſs than 40,000 prieſts, who conſtantly reſide here in voluptuous indolence. Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loretto of Indoſtan, the offerings of the numerous pilgrims who reſort hither, bring in an immenſe revenue. Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of ſmall ſtates of the ſame name, which with Marawar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot.
Territory of Futty Sing Guicker, in the Soubah of Guzerat	Amedabat Cambay
Territory of the Rajah of Ghod	Gwalior, a celebrated fortreſs.

TIPPOO SAIB's TERRITORIES.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Kingdom of Myſore —	Seringapatam on the Caveri
Bednore — — —	Bednore, or Hyder Nuggar
Canara — — —	Mangalore
Part of Malabar Proper —	Calicut.

Chitteldroog, Sanore, Harponelly, Roydroog, Gooty, Condanore, Caroul, Cuddapa, &c. are the capitals of territories of the ſame name, which have been ſucceſſively conquered by Hyder Ally.

MAHRATTA STATES AND THEIR TRIBUTARIES.

This extenſive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have one common head called the Pariſhwa, or Nana, to whom however their obedience is merely nominal, as they often go to war againſt each other, and are ſeldom confederated except for mutual defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the territories of Paiſhwa, are naturally ſtrong, being interſected by the various branches of the Gauts.

- Satara the nominal capital of the Mahratta ſtates; the Pariſhwa at preſent reſides at Poonah.
- Aurungabad, Amednagur, and Viſiapour, are in his territories.

The Concan, or tract between the Gauts and the ſea is ſometimes called the Pirate Coaſt, as it was ſubject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his ſucceſſors, whoſe capital was the ſtrong fortreſs of Gheria, taken by the Engliſh and Mahrattas in 1755: by the acquiſition of this coaſt the Mahrattas have become a maritime power, and dangerous enemies to the government of Bombay.

Berar Mahrattas, their country is very little known to Europeans.

- Nagpour is the capital.
- Balaſſore has conſiderable trade.
- Cuttack on the Mahanada, an important poſt, which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the Britiſh, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

Northern Poonah Mahrattas, governed at preſent by Sindia, Holkar, and ſome other leſs conſiderable princes.

- Ougein, the reſidence of Sindia.
- Indoor, the reſidence of Holkar.
- Calpy, the reſidence of Gungdar Punt.
- Sagur, the reſidence of Ballagee.

Territory of the Soubah of the Deccan *.

- Hydrabad is the capital.

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the ſoubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Perſia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thamas Kouli Khan, when on the death of that uſurper his empire was diſmembered: its capital is Candahar in Perſia.

Country of the Seiks: they are ſaid to conſiſt of a number of ſmall ſtates independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zabeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, ſurrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travançore, near Cape Comorin.

* Adoni is dependent on the ſoubah.

PERSIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 Breadth 1100	between	44 and 70 east longitude. 25 and 44 north latitude.	800,000.

Boundaries. MODERN Perſia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan, which divide it from Circaſſian Tartary, on the North-Weſt; by the Caſpian Sea, which divides it from Ruſſia, on the North; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbec Tartary, on the North-eaſt; by India, on the Eaſt; and by the Indian ocean, and the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the Weſt.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: on the frontiers of India are Choraſan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Eſterabad; Sableuſtan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigiſtan, the ancient Drangiana. The ſouthern diviſion contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedroſſia, and Farſiſtan, the ancient Perſia. The ſouth-weſt diviſion, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chuſiſtan, the ancient Suſiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-weſt diviſion, lying between the Caſpian Sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Aſia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media; Gangea, Daghiſtan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

Name.] Perſia according to the poets, derived its name from Perſius, the ſon of Jupiter and Danae. Leſs fabulous authors ſuppoſe it derived from Paras, which ſignifies a horſeman, the Perſians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

Air.] In ſo extenſive an empire this is very different. Thoſe parts which border upon Caucaſus and Daghiſtan, and the mountains near the Caſpian Sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of thoſe mountains which are commonly covered with ſnow. The air in the midland provinces of Perſia is ſerene, pure, and exhilirating; but in the ſouthern provinces it is hot, and ſometimes communicates noxious blaſts to the midland parts, which are ſo often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

Soil, vegetable and animal productions. } Theſe vary like the air. The ſoil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caſpian Sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſena, rhubarb, and the fineſt of drugs. The fruits are delicious, eſpecially their dates, oranges, piſtachio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-ſtuff, not to mention vaſt quantities of excellent ſilk; and the gulf of Baſſora formerly furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very fine pearls. Some parts near Iſpahan produce almoſt all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from ſome of them, the roſes eſpecially, they extract waters of a ſalubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful article in trade. In ſhort, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Perſia, are of a moſt exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as ſome nations in Europe, by tranſplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they

would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Perſian aſſafœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and ſome black; but the former is ſo much valued, that the natives make very rich ſauce of it, and ſometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the neceſſaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful ſpot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it it ſituated, either for the ſalubrity of the air, or for the profuſion of every thing neceſſary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harveſt is compleated. Moſt of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are ſuperior in ſize and flavour to what can be raiſed in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are ſeveral ſorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly ſo than the reſt; one is the large white grape, which is extremely luſcious and agreeable to the taſte; the ſmall white grape, as ſweet as ſugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well-deſerving of praiſe; ſo much ſo that people who have drank it for a ſpace of time ſeldom care for any other, though at the firſt taſte it is rather unpleaſant to an European. It is preſſed by the Armenians and Jews in the months of October and November, and a vaſt deal is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Perſian gulph, for the ſupply of the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Perſians call it the fruit of Paradiſe.

The breed of horſes in the province of Fars is at preſent very indifferent, owing to the ruinous ſtate of the country; but in the province of Duſhtiſtaàn, lying to the ſouth-weſt, it is remarkably good. The ſheep are of a ſuperior flavour, owing to the excellence of the paſturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are alſo celebrated for the fineneſs of their fleeces: they have tails of an extraordinary ſize, ſome of which I have ſeen weigh (ſays Mr. Francklin) upwards of thirty pounds; but thoſe which are ſold in the markets do not weigh above ſix or ſeven. Their oxen are large and ſtrong, but their fleſh is ſeldom eaten by the natives, who confine themſelves chiefly to that of the ſheep and fowls.

Proviſions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample ſupply of ſnow throughout the year, the meaneſt artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expence worthy his conſideration. This ſnow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is ſold in the markets. The price of proviſions is regulated in Shirauz with the greateſt exactneſs by the daroga, or judge of the police, who ſets a fixed price upon every article, and no ſhop-keeper dares to demand more, under the ſevere penalty of loſing his noſe and ears; ſuch being the puniſhment attached to a crime of this nature; by which means the pooreſt inhabitants are effectually ſecured from impoſition, in ſo capital a point as the neceſſaries of life.

Mountains.] Theſe are Caucaſus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghiſtan; and the vaſt collection of mountains called Taurus, and their diviſions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

Rivers.] It has been obſerved, that no country, of ſo great an extent, has ſo few navigable rivers as Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſes in or near the mountains of Ararat, and joining the Cyrus, falls into the Caſpian Sea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their ſtreams are ſo inconſiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even with boats. The Oxus

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can ſcarcely be called a Perſian river, though it divides Perſia from Uſbec Tartary. Perſia has the river Indus on the eaſt, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the weſt.

WATER.] The ſcarcity of rivers in Perſia occaſions a ſcarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well ſupplied by means of reſervoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Perſia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoiſe ſtones, which are found in Choraſan. Sulphur, ſalt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have alſo been diſcovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is impoſſible to ſpeak with any certainty concerning the population of a country ſo little known as that of Perſia. If we are to judge by the vaſt armies, in modern as well as ancient times, raiſed there, the numbers it contains muſt be very great. The Perſians of both ſexes are generally handſome; the men being fond of Georgian and Circaſſian women. Their complexions towards the ſouth are ſomewhat ſwarthy. The men ſhave their heads, but the young men ſuffer a lock of hair to grow on each ſide, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; but religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them coſt twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, ſo that they never pull off their caps or turbans out of reſpect even to the king. Their dreſs is very ſimple. Next to their ſkin they wear callico ſhirts, over them a veſt, which reaches below the knee, girt with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe garment ſomewhat ſhorter. The materials of their cloaths, however, are commonly very expenſive; conſiſting of the richeſt furs, ſilks, muſlin, cottons, and the like valuable ſtuffs, richly embroidered with gold and ſilver. They wear a kind of looſe boots on their legs, and ſlippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expenſive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their ſaſh, and linen trowſers. The collars of their ſhirts and cloaths are open; ſo that their dreſs upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpoſes both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dreſs of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very coſtly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and waſhes.

The Perſians accuſtom themſelves to frequent ablutions, which are the more neceſſary, as they ſeldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner upon fruits, ſweatmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repaſts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they eſteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dreſſed, theſe cakes are made thin, that they may be eaſily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton, or fowls, is ſo prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is ſet in order before them, they eat faſt, and without any ceremony. But it is obſerved by a late traveller, that when the oldeſt man in the company ſpeaks, though he be poor and ſet at the lower end of the room, they all give a ſtrict attention to his words. They are temperate, but uſe opium, though not in ſuch abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great maſters of ceremony towards their ſuperiors, and ſo polite, that they accommodate Europeans who viſit them with ſtools, that they may not be forced to ſit croſs-legged. They are ſo immoderately fond of tobacco, which they ſmoke through a tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes,

princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Perſians are naturally fond of poetry, moral ſentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Perſians with barbarous nations, and are ſaid to have taught them diſſimulation; but they are ſtill pleaſing and plauſible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hoſpitality.

The Perſians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their ſeals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed in their manuſcripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible ſeems to be oſtentation in their equipages and dreſſes; nor are they leſs jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eaſtern nations. They are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beaſts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz (Mr. Francklin obſerves) diſtinguiſhed by the name of Zoor Khàna, the houſe of ſtrength or exerciſe, to which the Perſians reſort for the ſake of exerciſing themſelves. Theſe houſes conſiſt of one room, with the floor ſunk about two feet below the ſurface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of ſeveral ſmall perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large ſquare terrace of earth, well beaten down, ſmooth and even; and on each ſide are ſmall alcoves raiſed about two feet above the terrace, where the muſicians and ſpectators are ſeated. When all the competitors are aſſembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately ſtrip themſelves to the waiſt; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the ſhape of a pear; theſe they reſt upon each ſhoulder, and the muſic ſtriking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, ſtamping with their feet at the ſame time, and ſtraining every nerve till they produce a very profuſe perſpiration. After continuing this exerciſe about half an hour, upon a ſignal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briſkly in union with the muſic, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for ſome time, they commence wreſtling, in which the maſter of the houſe is always the challenger; and, being accuſtomed to the exerciſe, generally proves conqueror. The ſpectators pay each a ſhahee in money, equal to three-pence Engliſh, for which they are refreſhed with a calean to ſmoke, and coffee. This mode of exerciſe muſt contribute to health, as well as add ſtrength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It ſeems to bear ſome reſemblance to the gymnaſtic exerciſes of the ancients.

In attempting to ſay any thing of the character of the modern Perſians (ſays Mr. Francklin) I am ſenſible of the difficulty of the undertaking, yet, as during my ſtay in Perſia, from the ſituation I was placed in, by living in a native family, I had an opportunity of ſeeing more of the nature and diſpoſition of the middling ſort of people, and their manners and cuſtoms, than has fallen to the lot of moſt travellers, I am induced to give the few obſervations I made during that period. The Perſians, with reſpect to outward behaviour, are certainly the Pariſians of the Eaſt. Whilſt a rude and inſolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkiſh nation towards foreigners and Chriſtians, the behaviour of the Perſians would, on the contrary, do honour to the moſt civiliſed nations: they are kind, courteous, civil and obliging to all ſtrangers, without being guided by thoſe religious prejudices

dices ſo very prevalent in every other Mahometan nation; they are fond of enquiring after the manners and cuſtoms of Europe; and in return very readily afford any information in reſpect to their own country. The practice of hoſpitality is with them ſo grand a point, that a man thinks himſelf highly honoured if you will enter his houſe and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a houſe, without ſmoking a calèan, or taking any other refreſhment, is deemed, in Perſia, a high affront; they ſay that every meal a ſtranger partakes with them brings a bleſſing upon the houſe.

The Perſians, in their converſation, uſe ſuch extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the moſt trifling occaſions, that it would at firſt inſpire a ſtranger with an idea, that every inhabitant of the place was willing to lay down his life, ſhed his blood, or ſpend his money in your ſervice; and this mode of addreſs (which in fact means nothing) is obſerved not only by thoſe of a higher rank, but even amongſt the meaneſt artificers, the loweſt of which will make no ſcruple, on your arrival, of offering you the city of Shirauz, and all its appurtenances, as a peiſhkuſh or preſent. This behaviour appears at firſt very remarkable to Europeans, but after a ſhort time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of converſation is a thing totally unknown in Perſia, as that *walls have ears* is proverbially in the mouth of every one. The fear of chains, which bind their bodies, has alſo enſlaved their minds; and their converſation to men of ſuperior rank to themſelves is marked with ſigns of the moſt abject and ſlaviſh ſubmiſſion; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their converſation, the Perſians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verſes and paſſages from the works of their moſt favourite poets Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice univerſally prevalent from the higheſt to the loweſt; becauſe thoſe who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits ariſing from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive, and what they learn by heart, are always ready to bear their part in converſation. They alſo delight much in jokes and quaint expreſſions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they ſometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their converſations, which is the ſtrict attention they always pay to the perſon ſpeaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a perſonable, and in many reſpects, a handſome people: their complexions, ſaving thoſe who are expoſed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The bright and ſparkling eyes of the women, which is a very ſtriking beauty, is in a great meaſure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called ſurma), which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural luſtre.

MARRIAGES.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out amongſt their kindred and acquaintance for a ſuitable match; they then go to the houſe where the female they intend to demand, lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders ſweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct ſign of compliance. After this, the uſual preſents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the perſon be in middling circumſtances, generally conſiſt of two complete ſuits of apparel of the beſt ſort, a ring, a looking-glaſs, and a ſmall ſum in ready money, of about ten or twelve tomans, which is to provide for the wife in caſe of divorce. There is alſo provided a quantity of houſehold ſtuff of all ſorts, ſuch as carpets, mats, bedding, utenſils for dreſſing victuals, &c. The contract is witneſſed by the cadi, or magiſtrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth covered from head to

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in a veil of red ſilk, or painted muſlin; a horſe is then preſented for her to mount, which is ſent thither expreſsly by the bridegroom; and when ſhe is mounted, a large looking-glaſs is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the houſe of her huſband, as an admonition to her, that it is the laſt time ſhe will look into the glaſs as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married ſtate. The proceſſion then ſets forward in the following order:—firſt, the muſic and dancing-girls, after which the preſents in trays borne upon men's ſhoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all ſhouting, and making a great noiſe; who are followed by the bride herſelf, ſurrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horſe by the bridle, and ſeveral others on horſeback cloſe the proceſſion. Rejoicings upon this occaſion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perſia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadi, or judge, for a wife during the time he propoſes to ſtay. The cadi, for a ſtated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honeſt, and free from diſeaſes; and he becomes ſurety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Ruſſian embaſſy to Perſia declares, that, among thouſands, there has not been one inſtance of their diſhoneſty during the time agreed upon.

Funerals.] The funerals of the Perſians are conducted in a manner ſimilar to thoſe in other Mahomedan countries. On the death of a Muſſulman, the relations and friends of the deceaſed being aſſembled, make loud lamentations over the corpſe; after which it is waſhed and laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a mullah, or prieſt, who chaunts paſſages from the Koràn all the way to the grave. If any Muſſulman ſhould chance to meet the corpſe during the proceſſion, he is obliged by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his aſſiſtance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the ſame time, *Làh Illáh Ill Lillàh!* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceaſed return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and ſpices, which they eat in memory of the deceaſed, ſending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they alſo may pay him a like honour. This cuſtom ſeems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of ſacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed ſouls.

Religion.] The Perſians are Mahometans of the ſect of Ali; for which reaſon the Turks, who follow the ſucceſſion of Omar and Abu-Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if poſſible, in ſome things more fantaſtical and ſenſual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with ſome bramin ſuperſtitions. When they are taxed by the Chriſtians with drinking ſtrong liquors, as many of them do, they anſwer very ſenſibly, "You Chriſtians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing ſins, which is the very caſe with us." Having mentioned the bramins, the compariſon between them and the Perſian *guebres* or *gaurs*, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the ancient magi, the followers of Zoroaſter, might be highly worth a learned diſquiſition: that both of them held originally pure and ſimple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be eaſily proved; but the Indian bramins and parſees accuſe the *gaurs*, who ſtill worſhip the fire, of having ſenſualiſed thoſe ideas, and introduced an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuſtible ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, a city in the north of Perſia, is the ſcene of the *guebres* devotions. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory ſubſtances, and contains ſeveral old little temples; in one of which the *guebres* pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal

fire which, riſes from the end of a large hollow cane ſtuck in the ground, reſembling a lamp burning with very pure ſpirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the *gaurs*, who were baniſhed out of Perſia by Shah Abbas. Their ſect is ſaid to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Perſians and the Romans ſeem early to have driven the ancient Chriſtians into Perſia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many ſects are found that evidently have Chriſtianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of quietiſts, ſacrifice their paſſions to God, and profeſs the moral duties. The Sabean Chriſtians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaiſm and Mahometaniſm; and are numerous towards the Perſian gulf. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Chriſtians, who are very numerous in Perſia. The preſent race of Perſians are ſaid to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing chiefly to their late wars with the Turks.

The Perſians obſerve the faſt during the month of Ramazàn (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great ſtrictneſs and ſeverity. About an hour before daylight, they eat a meal which is called Séhre, and from that time until the next evening at ſun-ſet, they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. It is even ſo rigid, that if in the courſe of the day the ſmoke of a calean, or the ſmalleſt drop of water, reaches their lips, the faſt is in conſequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From ſun-ſet until the next morning they are allowed to refreſh themſelves. This faſt, when the month Ramazàn falls in the middle of ſummer, as it ſometimes muſt do (theMahomedan year being lunar), is extremely ſevere, eſpecially to thoſe who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time, and is rendered ſtill more ſo, as there are alſo ſeveral nights during its exiſtence which they are enjoined to ſpend in prayer. The Perſians particularly obſerve two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died from a wound which he received from the hands of an aſſaſſin three days before; which night is the 21ſt of Ramazàn, the day of which is called by the natives the day of murder.—The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from Heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel and delivered to their prophet Mahomed; wherefore it is denominated the night of power.

LANGUAGE.] It has been diſputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had their language, from the Perſians; but this chiefly reſts on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Perſian language, and the deciſion ſeems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people eſpecially towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian ſea, ſpeak Turkiſh; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Perſia under the caliphate, when learning flouriſhed in thoſe countries. Many of the learned Perſians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as the modiſh language, as we do the French. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts, on the coaſt of the Perſian gulf, and in Iſpahan; but many of the provinces ſpeak a barbarous mixture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages. Their Pater-noſter is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kih der oſmoni; pac baſched mâm tu; bayayed padeſchahi tu; ſchwad chwáaſte tu henzjunáaukih der oſmon níz derzemín; béh mára jmrouz nân kefâf rouz mara; wadarguaſar mara konáhan ma zjunankihma niz mig ſarim ormân mara; wador ozmajiſch minedâzzmara; likin chalás kun mara ez eſeherir.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Perſians, in ancient times, were famous for both; and their poets renowned all over the Eaſt. There is a manuſcript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the fineſt Perſian poets. Ferduſi and Sadi were among the moſt celebrated. The former com-

priſed the hiſtory of Perſia in a ſeries of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are ſaid by Mr. Jones, to be "a glorious monument of Eaſtern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flouriſhed in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces, both in proſe and verſe. Shemſeddin was one of the moſt eminent lyric poets that Aſia has produced; and Nakhſbeb wrote in Perſian a book called the "Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a moſt animated and elegant poet, who flouriſhed in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whoſe beautiful compoſitions, on a great variety of ſubjects, are preſerved at Oxford, in twenty-two volumes. Hariri compoſed in a rich, elegant, and flowery ſtyle, a moral work, in fifty diſſertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interſperſed with a number of agreeable adventures, and ſeveral fine pieces of poetry.

Of Hafez, the ſprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are ſufficiently known to Orientaliſts. It may, however, excite the curioſity of the Engliſh reader, that the poet here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verſes: that the moſt powerful monarchs of the Eaſt ſought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchaſe the praiſes of his Muſe by all the honours and ſplendour of a court; and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of myſtic piety to the ſuperſtitious Mahometan, the oracle, which like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the councils of the wiſe, and prognoſticated the fate of armies and of ſtates. Seventeen odes have already been tranſlated into Engliſh by Mr. Nott, with which he has publiſhed the originals, for the purpoſe of promoting the ſtudy of the Perſian language. The 12th ode has alſo appeared in an Engliſh dreſs by the elegant hand of ſir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and deſervedly admired poet ſtands about two miles diſtant from the walls of the city of Shirauz, on the north-eaſt ſide. It is placed in a large garden, and under the ſhade of ſome cypreſs trees of extraordinary ſize and beauty; it is compoſed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth: this was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one: on the top and ſides of the tomb are ſelect pieces from the poet's own works, moſt beautifully cut in the Perſian Nuſtàleek character. During the ſpring and ſummer ſeaſons, the inhabitants viſit here, and amuſe themſelves with ſmoking, playing at cheſs and other games, reading alſo the works of Hafez, who is in greater eſteem with them than any other of their poets, and they venerate him almoſt to adoration, never ſpeaking of him but in the higheſt terms of rapture and enthuſiaſm; a moſt elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, for the purpoſe and the inſpection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city aſſemble here, and ſhew every poſſible mark of reſpect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory. Cloſe by the garden runs the ſtream of Roknabad, ſo celebrated in the works of Hafez, and, within a ſmall diſtance, the ſweet bower of Moſellày.

At preſent, learning is at a very low ebb among the Perſians. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is now reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial aſtrology; ſo that no people in the world are more ſuperſtitious than the Perſians. The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology, becauſe every doſe muſt be in the lucky hour fixed by the aſtrologer, which often defeats the ends of the preſcription. It is ſaid, however, that the Perſian phyſicians are acute and ſagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no ſtrangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country;

country; as equally rare are many other diſeaſes that are fatal in other places; ſuch as the gout, the ſtone, the ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexies. The Perſian practice of phyſic is therefore pretty much circumſcribed, and they are very ignorant in ſurgery, which is exerciſed by barbers, whoſe chief occupation is in letting blood; for they truſt the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The monuments of antiquity in Perſia, are more celebrated for their magnificence, and expence, than their beauty or taſte. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Perſepolis *, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and compoſed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Perſia, but void of that elegance and beauty which is diſplayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are ſtupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be ſeen at Iſpahan, ſixty feet high, conſiſting of the ſkulls of beaſts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect ſuch a column of human ſkulls; but upon the ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he performed his vow by ſubſtituting thoſe of brutes, each of the rebels furniſhing one.

The baths near Gombroon work ſuch cures, that they are eſteemed among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The ſprings of the famous Naphtha near Baku, are mentioned often in natural hiſtory for their ſurpriſing qualities; but the chief of the natural curioſities in this country, is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houſes of men of quality in Perſia, are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks already deſcribed. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumſey and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houſes being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan or Spahawn, the capital of Perſia, is ſeated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which ſupplies it with water. It is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they ſpend their ſummer evenings; and different families aſſociate together. The royal ſquare is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 1800 caravanſeras, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine ſquares, ſtreets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to ſhade and better accommodate the people. This capital is ſaid formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, ſo that we may eaſily ſuppoſe, that it has loſt great part of its magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the ſouth eaſt of Iſpahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpreſſibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles

* Mr. Francklin has lately favoured the world with a very full account of the ruins of this celebrated palace. We have availed ourſelves of many of his obſervation upon this empire; but his decription of theſe ruins is too long to be inſerted in this work.

in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The vines of Shirauz are reckoned the beſt of any in Perſia. This town is the capital of Farſiſtan, or Perſia Proper, and hath a college for the ſtudy of eaſtern learning, where the arts and ſciences were taught; and is the ſame as that mentioned by ſir John Chardin, who viſited this city in the laſt century. It is now, however, decaying very faſt, but there are ſtill mullahs and religious men reſiding in it; at preſent it goes by the name of Mudruſſa Khan, or the Khan's college; but literature and the ſciences have long ſince been neglected at Shirauz, and the preſent ſituation of the country does not ſeem to promiſe a ſpeedy revival. This city contains an uncommon number of moſques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houſes are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanſerais: that, diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (ſo called from its being built by Kerim Khan), is, upon the authority of Mr. Francklin, who lately viſited it, by far the handſomeſt. It is a long ſtreet, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed ſomething in the ſtyle of the Piazzas in Covent Garden; it is lofty and well made; on each ſide are the ſhops of the tradeſmen, merchants, and others, in which are expoſed for ſale, a variety of goods of all kinds: theſe ſhops are the property of the Khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very eaſy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a ſpacious caravanſerai, of an octagon form, built of brick; the entrance through a handſome arched gate-way: in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandiſe, and on the ſides above and below commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; theſe are alſo rented at a moderate monthly ſum. About the centre of the above mentioned bazar, is another ſpacious caravanſerai of a ſquare form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to repreſent China ware, and has a pleaſing effect to the eye.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Perſian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The Engliſh and other Europeans have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Perſians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which ſet out from various inland cities of Aſia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the ſame all over the Mahometan countries.

Moſques are religious buildings, ſquare, and generally of ſtone; before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. Theſe towers, as well as the moſques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence inſtead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. No woman is allowed to enter the moſques: nor can a man with his ſhoes or ſtockings on. Near moſt moſques is a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniencies for reading the Koran, and praying.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (according to Mr. Francklin) with many fine moſques, particularly that built by the late Kerim Khan, which is a noble one: being very well diſguiſed, ſays our traveller, in my Perſian dreſs, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobſerved; it is of a ſquare form; in the centre is a ſtone reſervoir of water, made for performing the neceſſary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four ſides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, ſome of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kherim Khan dying before

before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls, on each ſide, are engraved various ſentences from the Koran, in the Nuſhki character; and at the upper end of the ſquare is a large dome with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the Vakeel or ſovereign: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large ſilver lamps ſuſpended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another moſque, which the Perſians call the Musjidi Noo, or the New Moſque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city itſelf, at leaſt ſince it has been inhabited by Mahomedans: it is a ſquare building of a noble ſize, and has apartments for prayer on each ſide; in them are many inſcriptions in the old Cuſick character, which of themſelves denote the antiquity of the place.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well conſtructed for the purpoſe of bathing. Sometimes they are ſquare, but oftener circular, built of white well-poliſhed ſtone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the firſt for dreſſing and undreſſing; the ſecond contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholeſome; though to thoſe not accuſtomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and ſtretches his limbs as if he was diſlocating every bone in the body; all which exerciſes are, in thoſe inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies ſucceed, and when coming out of the bath diſplay their fineſt cloaths.

I might here attempt to deſcribe the eaſtern ſeraglios or harams, the women's apartments; but from the moſt credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taſte and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are ſeldom or never entered by ſtrangers; and there is no country where women are ſo ſtrictly guarded as among the great men in Perſia.

Police.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Perſia, is very good. At ſun-ſet the gates of the city are ſhut; no perſon whatever is permitted either to come in or go out during the night, the keys of the different gates being always ſent to the Hakim or Governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tiblas or drums, are beaten at three different times; the firſt at eight o'clock, the ſecond at nine, and the third at half paſt ten. After the third tibla has ſounded, all perſons whatſoever found in the ſtreets by the Daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are inſtantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the Hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themſelves, are puniſhed, either by the baſtinado, or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the Cazi, and eccleſiaſtical ones, (particularly divorces) by the Sheick al Sellaum, or head of the faith, an office anſwering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Juſtice is carried on in Perſia in a very ſummary manner; the ſentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the ſpot. Theft is generally puniſhed with the loſs of noſe and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which ſituation he is expoſed upon a gibbet in one of the moſt public parts of the city and there left until he expires in torment; a dreadful puniſhment, but it renders robberies in Perſia very uncommon. The puniſhments in this country are ſo varied and cruel, that humanity ſhudders at the thought; and the happy Engliſhman, viewing them, bleſſes himſelf that he is born in the arms of freedom, where property is not only ſacred, but juſtice adminiſtered with mercy!

Manu-

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Perſians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in ſilk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in theſe join fancy, taſte, and elegance, to richneſs, neatneſs, and ſhew; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their ſilver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preſerving their luſtre. Their embroideries and horſe furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glaſs manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artiſts, which is ſaid to be owing to the ſcarcity of timber all over Perſia. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are clumſey workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking glaſſes. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpreſſible diſadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them ſlaves to their kings, who often engroſs either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Perſians, who have little or no ſhipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the Engliſh and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the moſt gainful they had; but the perpetual wars in which they are engaged have ruined their commerce. The great ſcheme of the Engliſh, in trading with the Perſians through Ruſſia, promiſed vaſt advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto anſwered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Peterſburgh is not fond of ſuffering the Engliſh to eſtabliſh themſelves upon the Caſpian ſea, the navigation of which is now poſſeſſed by the Ruſſians; but nothing can be ſaid with certainty on that head, till the goverment of Perſia is in a more ſettled condition than it is at preſent.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both theſe are extremely precarious, as reſting in the breaſt of a deſpotic, and often capricious monarch. The Perſians, however, had ſome fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindneſs likewiſe was a diſqualification for the royal ſucceſſion. In other reſpects the king's will was a law for the people. The inſtances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practiſed by the Mahometan kings of Perſia, are almoſt incredible, eſpecially during the two laſt centuries. The reaſon given to the Chriſtian ambaſſadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their moſt celebrated princes, was, that the Perſians were ſuch brutes, and ſo inſenſible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exerciſe of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counſellors, and the ſmalleſt diſobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Perſians have no degrees of nobility, ſo that the reſpect due to every man, on account of his high ſtation, expires with himſelf. The king has been known to prefer a younger ſon to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton. No rank or condition of Perſians is exempted from ſevere taxations and ſervices. The governors of provinces have particular lands aſſigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown-lands defray the expences of the court, king's houſhold, and great officers of ſtate. After ſaying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Perſian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is ſubject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILI-

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raiſed bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern hiſtories of Perſia, they are eaſily recruited in caſe of a defeat. The Perſians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ſhips of war until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but ſince his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Perſian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the riſing ſun. His title is Shah, or the *Diſpoſer of Kingdoms*. Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he aſſumes likewiſe, are Tartar titles. To acts of ſtate the Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name, but the grant runs in this manner, *This act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys.*

HISTORY.] All ancient hiſtorians mention the Perſian monarchs and their grandeur; and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here ſufficient to ſay, that the Perſian empire ſucceeded the Aſſyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Chriſt, and reſtored the Iſraelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the perſon of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Chriſt. Alexander's empire was divided among his generals, whoſe deſcendants in leſs than three centuries were conquered by the Romans. Theſe laſt, however, never fully ſubdued Perſia, and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arſacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The ſucceſſors of thoſe princes ſurvived the Roman empire itſelf, but were ſubdued by the famous Tamerlane, whoſe poſterity were ſupplanted by a doctor of law, Cheki Adir, the anceſtor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be deſcended from Mahomet himſelf. His ſucceſſors, though ſome of them were valiant and politic, and enlarged the empire, and from him ſometimes called Sophis, proved in general to be a diſgrace to humanity, by their cruelty *, ignorance and indolence, which brought them into ſuch diſrepute with their ſubjects, barbarous as they were, that Haſſein, a prince of the Sefi race, who ſuceeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, ſon and ſucceſſor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himſelf was by Eſref, one of his general officers, who uſurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the repreſentative of the Sefi family, had eſcaped from the rebels, and aſſembling an army, took into his ſervice Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Eſref, and re-annexed to the Perſian monarchy all the places diſmembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At laſt the ſecret ambition of Nadir broke out, and, after aſſuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his ſervices were not ſufficiently rewarded, he rebelled againſt his ſovereign, made him a priſoner, and, it is ſuppoſed, put him to death.

This uſurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Indoſtan, and the amazing booty he made there, has been men-

* The inſtances of wanton cruelty, and the moſt ſavage barbarity, recorded of ſome of the kings of Perſia, are ſhocking to humanity, and a ſtriking evidence of the miſeries and calamities occaſioned by deſpotic power. Shah Abbas, ſurnamed the Great, having three ſons, cauſed the eyes of the two youngeſt to be put out, and afterwards put the eldeſt to death. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon, who began his reign by ordering the eyes of his only brother to be cut out. He alſo caſt from a rock his two uncles, who had before been blinded by order of Shah Abbas. The inſtances of his cruelty were innumerable: he buried alive forty-four women of his Haram, though when he was not hunting, or over his cups, he uſed to paſs his time with them. Seffie, or Suliman, who aſcended the throne of Perſia in 1660, and was a brutal tyrant, when he was intoxicated either with wine or anger, often ordered the hands, feet, ears, and noſes, of thoſe near him to be cut off, their eyes to be plucked out, or their lives to be ſacrificed, as if it were his paſtime.

tioned

tioned in the deſcription of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconſiderable part of his booty from India, loſing great part of it upon his return by the Mahrattas and various accidents. He next conquered Uſbec Tartary; but was not ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Dagheſtan Tartars, whoſe country he found to be inacceſſible. He beat the Turks in ſeveral engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to ſtrike terror into all his ſubjects by the moſt cruel executions. His conduct became ſo intolerable, that it was thought his brain was touched; and he was aſſaſſinated in his own tent, partly in ſelf-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, ſtarted up; and it may naturally be ſuppoſed, that a chronological and accurate account of theſe various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confuſion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the ſettlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and ſciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Perſia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom ſtruggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himſelf independent of the other, torrents of blood were ſhed, and the moſt ſhocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Ruſſia, preſents to the view thouſands of inſtances of the miſery and devaſtation which has been occaſioned by theſe commotions. The picture is melancholy but juſt.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the ſeries of pretenders to the throne of Perſia, from the death of Nadir Shaw until the final eſtabliſhment of Kerim Khan's government was no leſs than nine, including himſelf. Kerim Khan Zund was a moſt favourite officer of Nadir Shaw, and at the time of his death was in the ſouthern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at laſt, after various encounters, with doubtful ſucceſs, completely to ſubdue all his rivals; and finally to eſtabliſh himſelf as ruler of all Perſia. He was in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Perſia under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his reſidence, in gratitude for the aſſiſtance he had received from its inhabitants, and thoſe of the ſouthern inhabitants. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his ſubjects, who eſteemed and honoured him as the glory of Perſia. His character is moſt deſervedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained, ſo that during his whole reign there was not in Shirauz a ſingle riot productive of bloodſhed; beſides theſe, his averſion to ſevere puniſhments, his liberality and kindneſs to the poor, his toleration of people of different perſuaſions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities, and perſonal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own ſubjects, but greatly reſpected by foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan to the preſent time, a variety of competitors have been deſirous of filling the throne of Perſia. Of theſe we ſhall only mention the two principal. Akau Mahomet Khan keeps poſſeſſion of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Iſpahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as ſovereign. Jaafar Khan has poſſeſſion of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuſter: he alſo receives an annual preſent from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd; Abu Shehr and Lar alſo ſend him tribute. The ſouthern provinces are in general more fruitful than thoſe to the northward, they not having been ſo frequently the ſcenes of action during the late revolutions.

Jaafar

Jaafar Khan is a middle-aged man, very corpulent, and has a caſt in his right eye: in the places where he is acknowledged, he is well beloved and reſpected; he is very mild in his diſpoſition, and juſt. In Shirauz he keeps up a moſt excellent police, and good government. He is very kind and obliging to ſtrangers in general, and to the Engliſh in particular. Of the two competitors who at preſent contend for the government of Perſia, he is the moſt likely, in caſe of ſucceſs againſt his opponent, to reſtore the country to a happy and reputable ſtate; but it will require a long ſpace of time to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it:—a country, if an Oriental metaphor may be allowed, once bloming as the garden of Eden, fair and flouriſhing to the eye;—now, ſad reverſe! deſpoiled and leafleſs by the cruel ravages of war, and deſolating contention.

The forces of the two competitors are nearly equal, conſiſting of about 20,000 men, chiefly horſe. This was the ſituation of the country in 1788, according to the report of the laſt advices, when the fate of Perſia was ſtill undecided.

ARABIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1430 Breadth 1200	between	35 and 60 eaſt longitude. 12 and 30 north latitude.	700,000.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Turkey on the North; by the gulfs of Perſia or Baſſora, and Ormus, which ſeparate it from Perſia, on the Eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, South; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N.	—— ——	Suez, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.
2. Arabia Deſerta, in the middle.	Haggiaz or Mecca -	Mecca, E. lon. 43-30. N. lat. 21-20.
		Siden
		Medina
	Tehama - -	Dhafar
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	Mocha - -	Mocha, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45.
		Sibit
	Hadramut - -	Hadramut
	Caſſeen - -	Caſſeen
	Segur - -	Segur
	Oman or Muſcat -	Muſcat
	Jamama - -	Jamama
	Bahara - -	Elcalf

NAME.] It is remarkable that this country has always preſerved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally ſaid, ſignifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is ſaid to ſignify both a thief and an inhabitant of the deſert. Theſe names juſtly belong to the Arabians, for they ſeldom let any merchandiſe paſs through the country without extorting ſomething from the owners.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, eaſt of the Red-Sea, and thoſe called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the moſt noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES.] There are few fountains, ſprings, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which waſhes the north-eaſt limits of it. It is almoſt ſurrounded with ſeas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red-Sea, the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are thoſe of Roſalgate and Muſſedon.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] As a conſiderable part of this country lies under the Torrid Zone, and the Tropic of Cancer paſſes over Arabia Felix, the air is exceſſively dry and hot, and the country is ſubject to hot poiſonous winds, like thoſe on the oppoſite ſhores of Perſia, which often prove fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. The ſoil, in ſome parts, is nothing more than immenſe ſands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and ſometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or loſt. In theſe deſerts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, ſays Dr. Shaw, are no paſtures clothed with flocks, nor vallies ſtanding thick with corn; here are no vineyards or oliveyards: but the whole is a loneſome deſolate wilderneſs, no otherways diverſified than by plains covered with ſand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unleſs ſometimes at the equinoxes, refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night is almoſt equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the ſouthern part of Arabia, deſervedly called the Happy, is bleſſed with an excellent ſoil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea-coaſt, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankinceſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which laſt are found ſcarcely any where in ſuch perfection as here and in Perſia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The moſt uſeful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traverſing the dry and parched deſerts of this country, for they are ſo formed, that they can throw up the liquor form their ſtomach into their throat, by which means they can travel ſix or eight days without water. The camels uſually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to reſt, and in due time riſe with their load. The dromedary is a ſmall camel with two bunches on its back, and remarkably ſwift. It is an obſervation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will ſmell it a diſtance, and ſet up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horſes are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of the Engliſh. They are only fit for the ſaddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their ſwiftneſs and high mettle. The fineſt breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is ſituated.

INHA-

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.] The Arabians like moſt of the nations of Aſia, are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are ſwift of foot, excellent horſemen, and are ſaid to be in general a brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire-arms, good markſmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done ſince they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are ſuch thieves, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations through motives of devotion or curioſity, are ſtruck with terror on their approaches towards the deſerts. Thoſe robbers, headed by a captain, traverſe the country in conſiderable troops on horſeback, and aſſault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that ſo late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 perſons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though eſcorted by a Turkiſh army. On the ſea-coaſt they are mere pirates, and make prize of every veſſel they can maſter, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue ſhirt, tied about them with a white ſaſh or girdle; and ſome of them have a veſt of furs or ſheep-ſkins over it; they alſo wear drawers, and ſometimes ſlippers, but no ſtockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almoſt naked; but, as in the eaſtern countries, the women are ſo wrapped up, that nothing can be diſcerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of fleſh, except that of hogs; and prefer the fleſh of camels, as we prefer veniſon, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the fleſh, as the Jews do, and like them refuſe ſuch fiſh as have no ſcales. Coffee and tea, water, and ſherbet made of oranges, water, and ſugar, is their uſual drink: they have no ſtrong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following hiſtory of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs a reſtill Pagans, but the people in general profeſs Mahometaniſm.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and ſkill in all the liberal arts, there is ſcarcely a country at preſent where the people are ſo univerſally ignorant. The vulgar language uſed in the three Arabias is the Arabeſk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the Eaſt accounted the richeſt, moſt energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin is among Europeans, and uſed by Mahometans in their worſhip; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradiſe, and think no man can be maſter of it without a miracle, as conſiſting of ſeveral millions of words. The books which treat of it ſay, they have no fewer than a thouſand terms to expreſs the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of *lion*.

In the Temple of Mecca, or ſuſpended on its walls and gates, are ſeven Arabian poems, called the *Moalakat*, a fine ſpecimen of Oriental poetry. As to the dramatic paſtorals, which have been lately tranſlated into Engliſh by ſir William Jones, the following ſtanzas of one of the poems are tranſcribed, as they ſerve to gratify literary curioſity, and alſo diſplay a lively and entertaining view of the Arabian cuſtoms and modes of living.

1. "Deſolate are the manſions of the fair, the ſtations in Minia, where they

reſted, and thoſe where they fixed their abodes! Wild are the hills of Geul and deſerted is the ſummit of Rijaam.

2. The canabs of Rayaan are deſtroyed: the remains of them are laid bare, and ſmoothed by the floods, like characters engaved on the ſolid rocks.
3. Dear ruins! Many a year has been cloſed, many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapſed ſince I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants.
4. The rainy conſtellations of ſpring have made their hills green and luxuriant: The drops from the thunder-clouds have drenched them with profuſe as well as with gentle ſhowers:
5. Showers from every nightly cloud, from every cloud veiling the horizon at day-break, and from every evening cloud, reſponſive with hoarſe murmurs.
6. Here the wild eringo-plants raiſe their head; here the antelopes bring forth their young by the ſides of the valley; and here the oſtriches drop their eggs.
7. The large-eyed wild cows lie ſuckling their young a few days old: their young, who will ſoon become a herd on the plain.
8. The torrents have cleared the rubbiſh, and diſcloſed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer reſtore effaced letters in a book.
9. Or as the black duſt, ſprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view, with a brighter tint, the blue ſtains of woad.
10. I ſtood aſking news of the ruins concerning their lovely habitants; but what avail my queſtions to dreary rocks, who anſwer them only by their echo?
11. In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once dwelled: but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing of them remains but the camels which encircled their tents, and the Thumaam-plants, with which they were repaired.
12. How were thy tender affections raiſed, when the damſels of the tribe departed; when they hid themſelves in carriages of cotton, like antelopes in their lair; and the tents, as they were ſtruck, gave a piercing ſound!
13. They were concealed in vehicles, whoſe ſides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine-ſpun curtains, and pictured veils.
14. A company of maidens were ſeated in them, with black-eyes, and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of Tuda, or the roes of Wegera, tenderly gazing on their young.
15. They haſtened their camels, till the ſultry vapour gradually ſtole them from thy ſight; and they ſeemed to paſs through a vale, wild with tamariſks, and rough with large ſtone, like the valley of *Beiſha*."

The Pater-noſter in the Arabic is as follows: *Abuna elladhi fi-ſſamwat; jetkaddas eſmâc; tati malacutac: taouri maſchiatic, cama fi-ſſama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wagfor lena donubena, wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; walâ tadalbchalna fihajarib; laken mejjina me nneſcherir.* Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND ARTS. What is called the Deſert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

From Mount Sinai may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On thoſe mountains, are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the

the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhew the very ſpot where every miracle or tranſaction recorded in ſcripture happened. The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muſchat, Suez, and Juddah or Gedda.

Mocha is well built, the houſes very lofty, and forts covered with a chinam or ſtucco that give a dazzling whiteneſs to them. The harbour is ſemicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are ſeveral handſome moſques in the city. Suez, the Arſinoe of the ancients, is ſurrounded by the deſert, and but a ſhabby ill-built place. The ſhips are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greateſt trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets and is interchanged, the former ſending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs and other articles by the way of Cairo. The revenues of theſe, with the profits of the port, are ſhared by the grand-ſignior and the xeriff of Mecca, to whom this place jointly belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deſerve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a moſque ſo glorious, that it is generally counted the moſt magnificent of any temple in the Turkiſh dominions: its lofty roof being raiſed in faſhion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conſpicuous at a great diſtance. The moſque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the fineſt gildings and tapeſtry. The number of pilgrims who yearly viſit this place is almoſt incredible, every muſſulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his life-time, or ſend a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a ſtately moſque, ſupported by 400 pillars, and furniſhed with 300 ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the *Moſt Holy* by the Turks, becauſe in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of ſilver tiſſue, which the baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the grand-ſignior, renews every year. The camel which carries it, derives a ſort of ſanctity from this office, and is never to be uſed in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden creſcent, ſo curiouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones, that it is eſteemed a maſter-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims reſort, as to Mecca, but not in ſuch numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are ſtyled xerifs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and prieſt, in the ſame manner as the califs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet. Theſe monarchs appear to be abſolute, both in ſpirituals and temporals; the ſucceſſion is hereditary, and they have no other laws than thoſe found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the Turks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding among them; but it is certain they receive large gratuities from the grand-ſignior for protecting the pilgrims that paſs through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no ſtanding regular militia, but their kings command both the perſons and the purſes of their ſubjects, as the neceſſity of affairs require.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of this country in ſome meaſure differs from that of all others; for as the ſlavery and ſubjection of other nations make a great pat of their hiſtory, that of the Arabs is entirely compoſed of their conqueſts or independence. The Arabs are deſcended from Iſhmael, of whoſe poſterity it was foretold, that they ſhould be invincible, "have their hand againſt every man, and every man's hand againſt theirs." They are at preſent, and have remained from the remoteſt ages,

ages, during the various conqueſts of the Greek, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Toward the north, and the ſea-coaſts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the ſouthern and inland parts acknowledge themſelves ſubjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harraſs and annoy all ſtrangers who come into their country. The conqueſts of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their hiſtory, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. Theſe, as well as their religion, began with one man, whoſe character forms a very ſingular phenomenon in the hiſtory of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that diviſion of Arabia which, for the luxuriancy of its ſoil, and mild temperature of its climate, has ever been eſteemed the lovelieſt and ſweeteſt region of the world, and is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the ſixth century, anno 569, in the reign of Juſtinian II. emperor of Conſtantinople. Though deſcended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endowed with a ſubtile genius, like thoſe of the ſame country, and poſſeſſed a degree of enterprize and ambition peculiar to himſelf, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occaſion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the ſervice of a rich merchant, upon whoſe death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be poſſeſſed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the Eaſt, he had obſerved the vaſt variety of ſects in religion, whoſe hatred againſt each other was ſtrong and inveterate, while at the ſame time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of theſe particulars, by means of which, and by addreſſing himſelf to the love of power, riches, and pleaſure, paſſions univerſal among men, he expected to raiſe a new ſyſtem of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been eſtabliſhed. In this deſign he was aſſiſted by a Sergian monk, whoſe libertine diſpoſition had made him forſake his cloiſter and profeſſion, and engage in the ſervice of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domeſtic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for ſupplying the defects which his maſter, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, muſt have obſtructed the execution of his deſign. It was neceſſary, however, that the religion they propoſed to eſtabliſh ſhould have a divine ſanction; and for this purpoſe Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to this advantage. He was often ſubject to fits of the epilepſy, a diſeaſe which thoſe whom it afflicts are deſirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that theſe fits were trances, into which he was miraculouſly thrown by God Almighty, during which he was inſtructed in his will, which he was commanded to publiſh to the world. By this ſtrange ſtory, and by leading a retired, abſtemious, and auſtere life, he eaſily acquired a character for ſuperior ſanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himſelf ſufficiently fortified by the numbers, and the enthuſiaſm of his followers, he boldly declared himſelf a prophet, ſent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his ſyſtem ſo narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthuſiaſtic, was enlarged by travelling into diſtant lands, whoſe manners and religion he had made a peculiar ſtudy. He propoſed that the ſyſtem he eſtabliſhed

bliſhed ſhould extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whoſe doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the Eaſtern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jeſus Chriſt was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanaſian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into theſe corners of the world from the perſecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of thoſe countries were pagans. Theſe, however, had little attachments to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whoſe religious principle is weak, and given themſelves over to pleaſure and ſenſuality, or to the acquiſition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of ſenſe, which, together with the doctrine of predeſtination, compoſed the ſole principles of their religion and philoſophy. Mahomet's ſyſtem was exactly ſuited to theſe three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had ſent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moſes and Jeſus Chriſt were the moſt eminent; but the endeavours of theſe had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now ſent his laſt and greateſt prophet with a commiſſion more ample than what Moſes or Chriſt had been entruſted with. He had commanded him not only to publiſh his laws, but to ſubdue thoſe who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to eſtabliſh a kingdom upon earth which ſhould propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had deſigned utter ruin and deſtruction to thoſe who ſhould refuſe to ſubmit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the ſpoils and poſſeſſions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradiſe of all ſenſual enjoyments, eſpecially thoſe of love; that the pleaſures of ſuch as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intenſe, and vaſtly tranſcend thoſe of the reſt. Theſe, together with the prohibition of drinking ſtrong liquors (a reſtraint not very ſevere in warm climates), and the doctrine of predeſtination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no ſooner publiſhed than a vaſt many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the prieſt we formerly mentioned, and compoſe a book called the *Koran*, or Alcoran, by way of eminence, as we ſay the Bible, which means the Book. The perſon of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca, ſo that the greater part of them were ſufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a deſign to cut him off: but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the city of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to cuſtom, greateſt at a diſtance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Chriſt, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his miniſtry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called in Arabic, Hegira, "the Flight."

Mahomet, by the aſſiſtance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his inſinuation and addreſs daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at leaſt to an acquieſcence in his doctrines. The ſpeedy propagation of his ſyſtem among the Arabians, was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt, and the Eaſt, who were previouſly diſpoſed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forſook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion ſpread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Perſia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the moſt powerful monarch in his time. He was proclaimed king at Medina in the year 627, and after ſubduing

part of Arabia and Syria, he died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both eſteemed divine among their ſubjects. Theſe were the caliphs of Perſia and of Egypt, under the laſt of which Arabia was included. The former of theſe turned their arms to the Eaſt, and made conqueſts of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained becauſe they entered Europe from Mauritania in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced moſt of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the ſucceſſors of that impoſtor ſpread their religion and conqueſts over the greateſt part of Aſia, Africa, and Europe; and they ſtill give law to a very conſiderable part of mankind.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Nipham, Bongo, Tonſo, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN, and are governed by a moſt deſpotic prince, who is ſometimes called emperor and ſometimes king. They are ſituated about 150 miles eaſt of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41ſt degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of eaſt longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141ſt degree of eaſt longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The ſoil and productions of the country are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of China: and the inhabitants are famous for their lacker ware, known by the name of Japan. The iſlands themſelves are very inacceſſible, through their high rocks and tempeſtuous ſeas; they are ſubjected to earthquakes and have ſome volcanos. I have already mentioned the circumſtance of the Dutch expelling the Portugueſe from this gainful trade. The Japaneſe themſelves are the groſſeſt of all idolaters, and ſo irreconcileable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid the Dutch who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themſelves to be no Chriſtians, and humour the Japaneſe in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions. Notwithſtanding all this compliance, the natives are very ſhy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagaſacci, in the Iſland of Dezima, is the only place where they are ſuffered to trade. The complexions of the Japaneſe are in general yellowiſh, although ſome few, chiefly women, are almoſt white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like thoſe of the Chineſe and Tartars; and their noſes are ſhort and thick. Their hair is univerſally black; and ſuch a ſameneſs of faſhion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head-dreſs is the ſame from the emperor to the peaſant. The faſhion of their cloaths has alſo remained the ſame from very high antiquity. They conſiſt of one or more looſe gowns, tied about the middle with a ſaſh. People of rank have them made of ſilk, but the lower claſs of cotton ſtuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or ſilver flowers woven into the ſtuff.

Their houſes are built with upright poſts, croſſed and wattled with bamboo, plaiſtered both without and within, and white-waſhed. They generally have two ſtories; but the uppermoſt is low and ſeldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from

from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, ſtools, benches, cupboards, or even beds. Their cuſtom is to ſit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always ſoft and clean. Their victuals are ſerved up to them on a low board raiſed but a few inches from the floor, and one diſh only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houſes as ornamental furniture: they are made of a compound metal, and uſed only at their toilets. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houſes from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor ſtoves: inſtead of theſe they uſe large copper pots ſtanding upon legs. Theſe are lined on the inſide with loam, on which aſhes are laid to ſome depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which ſeems to be prepared in ſome manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The firſt compliment offered to a ſtranger, in their houſes, is a diſh of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are uſed by both ſexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inſeparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly: every houſe, whether public or private, has a bath, of which conſtant and daily uſe is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and reſpect to ſuperiors, are the characteriſtics of this nation. Their ſalutations and converſations between equals abound alſo with civility and politeneſs; to which children are early accuſtomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very ſevere; but puniſhments are ſeldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes againſt ſociety are committed. Commerce and manufactures flouriſh here, though, as theſe people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we ſee in Europe. Agriculture is ſo well underſtood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chineſe, and in both caſes with companies of privileged merchants. Beſides the ſugars, ſpices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch ſend to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer ſkins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greateſt part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandiſe they export from theſe iſlands both for Bengal and Europe, conſiſts in 9000 cheſts of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they ſend an annual preſent to the emperor, conſiſting of cloth, Chintz, ſuccotas, cottons, ſtuffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is ſaid to be Guam, eaſt longitude 140, north latitude 14: they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, except that lord Anſon landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreſhment for himſelf and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewiſe an Oriental iſland. It is ſituated to the eaſt of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the ſouth-coaſt, and ending at the north. This is a very fine iſland, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. That part of the iſland which lies to the weſt of the mountains, belongs to the Chineſe, who conſider the inhabitants of the eaſtern parts as ſavages, though they are ſaid to be a very inoffenſive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the ſame with the Chineſe, already deſcribed. The Chineſe have likewiſe made themſelves maſters of ſeveral other iſlands in thoſe ſeas, of which we ſcarcely know

the names; that of Ainan is between ſixty and ſeventy leagues long, and between fifty and ſixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a ſhy, cowardly people, and live in the moſt unwholeſome part of the iſland, the coaſt and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being poſſeſſed by the Chineſe.

The PHILIPPINES are ſaid to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chineſe ſea (part of the Pacific Ocean), 200 miles ſouth-eaſt of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants conſiſt of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Pintados or painted people, and Meſtes, a mixture of all theſe. The property of the iſlands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been diſcovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their ſituation is ſuch, between the eaſtern and weſtern continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru as well as with all the iſlands and places of the Eaſt Indies. Two ſhips from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on the commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the neceſſaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Veniſon of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, ſheep, goats, and a particular large ſpecies of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The neſt of the bird ſaligan affords that diſſolving jelly, which is ſo voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive ſurpriſingly in thoſe iſlands. If a ſprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted there, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; ſo that the verdure and luxuriancy of the ſoil are almoſt incredible. The tree amet ſupplies the natives with water; and there is alſo a kind of cane, which if cut yields fair water enough for a draught: this abounds in the mountains, where the water is moſt wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the diſtance of three leagues, and defended by the caſtle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the Engliſh under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, who took it by ſtorm, and humanely ſuffered the archbiſhop, who was the Spaniſh viceroy at the ſame time, to ranſom the place for about a million ſterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerouſly diſowned by him and the court of Spain, ſo that great part of the ranſom is ſtill unpaid. The Spaniſh government is ſettled there, and the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other iſlands, particularly Mindanoa, the largeſt next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call ſultan. The ſultan of Mindanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though theſe iſlands are enriched with all the profuſion of nature, yet they are ſubject to moſt dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the ſoil is peſtered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whoſe poiſons kill almoſt inſtantaneouſly. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. Theſe are not out of ſight of each other, and lie all within the compaſs of twenty-five leagues, to the ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between one degree ſouth, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. Theſe iſlands produce neither corn nor rice, ſo that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of ſagoe. Their chief produce conſiſts of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vaſt quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch with ſo much jealouſy, that they deſtroy the plants leſt the natives ſhould ſell the ſupernumerary ſpices to other nations. Theſe iſlands, after being ſubject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, ſubordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largeſt of theſe iſlands, though no more than thirty miles

miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

AMBOYNA. This iſland, taken in a large ſenſe, is one of the moſt conſiderable of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is ſituated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of ſouth latitude, and 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Batavia. Amboyna is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garriſon of 7 or 800 men, beſides ſmall forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known, that when the Portugueſe were driven off this iſland, the trade of it was carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in firſt torturing and then murdering the Engliſh, and thereby engroſſing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but muſt be tranſmitted as a memorial of Dutch cruelty at that period, to all poſterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are ſituated between 127 and 128 degrees eaſt longitude, and between four and five ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Lantor (the chief town of which is Lantor), Poleron, Roſinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on theſe iſlands, are thoſe of Revenge and Naſſau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on theſe iſlands only, and they are intirely ſubject to the Dutch. In ſeveral iſlands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, becauſe, as naturaliſts tell us, birds, eſpecially doves and pigeons, ſwallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the ſame ſtate; which is one of the reaſons why the Dutch declare war againſt both birds. The great nutmeg harveſt is in June and Auguſt.

The iſland of CELEBES or MACASSAR, is ſituate under the equator, between the iſland of Borneo and the Spice iſlands, at the diſtance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This iſland, notwithſtanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the ſtudy of poiſons, with a variety of which nature has furniſhed them. The Dutch have a fortification on this iſland; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom reſides in the town of Macaſſar. In this, and indeed in almoſt all the Oriental iſlands, the inhabitants live in houſes built on large poſts, which are acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their ſecurity againſt venomous animals. They are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chineſe; and if their chiefs were not perpetually at war with each other, they might eaſily drive the Dutch from their iſland. Their port of Jampoden is the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewiſe fortified GILOLO and CERAM, two other ſpice iſlands, lying under the equator, and will ſink any ſhips that attempt to traffic in thoſe ſeas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Theſe are ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lambee, Banca, &c. The three firſt, from their great extent and importance, require to be ſeparately deſcribed.

BORNEO is ſaid to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and till late diſcoveries was therefore thought to be the largeſt iſland in the world. The inland part of the country is marſhy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The ſoil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang is a native of this country; it is now found by Dr. Camper to have the intermaxillary bone, in common with other quadrupeds, beſides a bone in its penis: and in many other particulars to differ from the human form, with which it was long ſuppoſed to have ſo near a reſemblance. The ſea-coaſt of Borneo is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of this iſland is Benjar-Maſſeen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, and Java on the ſouth-eaſt, from which it is divided by the ſtraits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees, and upwards, north-weſt of it, and five on the ſouth-eaſt; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This iſland produces ſo much gold, that it is thought by ſome to be the Ophir mentioned in the ſcriptures; but Mr. Marſden, in his late hiſtory of the iſland, thinks it was unknown to the ancients. The higheſt mountain in Sumatra is called *Ophir* by the Europeans, whoſe ſummit above the level of the ſea is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriffe by 577 feet. The Portugueſe were the firſt diſcoverers and ſettlers, but met with diſgrace in their attempts againſt Acheen. The firſt Engliſh fleet that made its appearance in this part of the world, and laid the foundation of a commerce that was to eclipſe that of every other European ſtate, viſited Acheen in the year 1602, under captain Lancaſter, who carried a letter from queen Elizabeth to the king of that place. The Engliſh Eaſt India company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen, and Fort-Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Acheen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who poſſeſs the ſea-coaſts. The interior parts are governed by Pagan princes, whoſe governments are all independent, and their language and manners are very different. The natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of the adjacent iſlands, but this iſland is ſurpraſſed by few in rice, pepper, and camphor, and the bountiful indulgence of nature. It is from this country that moſt of the caſſia ſent to Europe is produced. The caſſia tree grows to fifty or ſixty feet, with a ſtem of about two feet diameter, and a beautiful and regular ſpreading head. The quantity of pepper produced in the Eaſt India company's diſtricts on Sumatra is annually 1200 tons; of which the greateſt part comes to Europe, and the reſt is ſent to China.

Rain is very frequent here: ſometimes very heavy, and almoſt always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are ſeveral volcanoes on the iſland. The people who inhabit the coaſt are Malays, who came hither from the peninſula of Malacca, but the interior parts are inhabited by very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from thoſe of the Malays; the latter uſing the Arabic character, as do the Acheeneſe. The principal internal languages of the iſland are the Rejang and Batha, each containing characters eſſentially different from each other. The people between the diſtricts of the Engliſh company, and thoſe of the Dutch at Palembang, on the other ſide the iſland, write on long narrow ſlips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and from the left hand to the right, contrary to the cuſtom of the other eaſtern nations. Theſe inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in ſmall villages, called dooſons, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, ſome written ones, by which they puniſh offen-

offenders, and terminate diſputes. They have almoſt all of them, particularly the women, large ſwellings in their necks, ſome near as big as a man's head, but in general as big as an oſtrich's egg, like the Goitres of the Alps. That part of this iſland, which is called the Caffia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and cuſtoms. They have no king, but live in villages, independent of each other, and generally at variance. They fortify their villages very ſtrongly with double fences of camphor plank pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between theſe fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewiſe pointed, which are concealed by the graſs, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take priſoners, they put to death and eat, and their ſkulls they hang up as trophies, in the houſes where the unmarried men and boys eat and ſleep. They allow of polygamy; a man may purchaſe as many wives as he pleaſes; but Mr. Marſden obſerves, it is extremely rare, that an inſtance occurs of their having more than one, and that only among a few of their chiefs: but this continence is attributed to their poverty. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the ſame with that of the inhabitants of the South-Sea iſlands, general ſtyled Otaheitean cloth. The buffalo (*carbow*) conſtitutes a principal part of their food, and is the only animal employed in their domeſtic labours. The Sumatran pheaſant is a bird of uncommon beauty.

Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the iſland of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers that entirely ſurround it. It is inhabited by naked ſavages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and ſpeak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring iſlands.

The grateſt part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of ſix degrees ſouth, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furniſhed with one of the fineſt harbours in the world. The town itſelf is built in the manner of thoſe in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and ſurrounded by regular fortifications; but its ſurburbs are ſaid to be ten times more populous than itſelf. The government here is a mixture of Eaſtern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers. The city is as beautiful as it is ſtrong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a moſt agreeable reſidence. The deſcription of it, its government and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almoſt every nation in the world. The Chineſe reſiding in this iſland are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarouſly maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence even proved upon them, in 1740. This maſſacre was too unprovoked and deteſtable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, ſent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of ſince. A Dutch garriſon of 3000 men conſtantly reſides at Batavia; and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the iſland and the neighbourhood of the city. Their government is admirably well calculated to prevent the independency either of the civil or military power.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR iſlands. Theſe iſlands lie at the entrance of the bay

bay of Bengal, and furniſh proviſion, conſiſting of tropical fruits and other neceſſaries, for the ſhips that touch there. They are otherwiſe too inconſiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by an harmleſs, inoffenſive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON. This iſland, though not the largeſt, is thought to be by nature the richeſt and fineſt in the world. It is ſituated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin, the ſouthern extremity of the Hither Peninſula of India, being ſeparated from the coaſt of Coromandel by a narrow ſtrait, and is 250 miles long and 200 broad. The natives call it, with ſome ſhew of reaſon, the terreſtrial paradiſe; and it produces, beſides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſalt-petre, ſulphur, lead, iron, ſteel, copper: beſides cinnamon, gold, and ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones except diamonds. All kinds of fowls and fiſh abound here. Every part of the iſland is well wooded and watered; and beſides ſome curious animals peculiar to itſelf, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is perferred to all others, eſpecially if ſpotted; but ſeveral noxious animals, ſuch as ſerpents and ants, are likewiſe found here. The chief commodity of the iſland is its cinnamon, which is by far the beſt in all Aſia. Though its trees grow in great profuſion, yet the beſt is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief ſettlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, ſo that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, who have in a manner ſhut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which ſtands on a mountain in the middle of the iſland, ſo that he has ſcarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in his own dominons. The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglaſſes, who, though idolaters, value themſelves upon maintaining their ancient laws and cuſtoms. They are, in general, a ſober inoffenſive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to obſerve, that the cinnamon tree, which is a native of this iſland, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the beſt; and the body of the tree, which when ſtripped is white, ſerves for building and other uſes. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious iſland, to defend them againſt the Portugueſe, whom they expelled, and have monopoliſed it ever ſince to themſelves. Indeed, in January 1782, Trinconomale, the chief ſea-port of the iſland, was taken by the Engliſh, but ſoon afterwards retaken by the French, and reſtored to the Dutch by the laſt treaty of peace

The MALDIVES. Theſe are a vaſt cluſter of ſmall iſlands, or little rocks, juſt above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly reſorted to by the Dutch, who drive a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of ſmall ſhells, which go, or rather formerly went, for money upon the coaſts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity and medicine. "Of this tree, (ſays a well-informed author) they build veſſels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, maſts, ſails, rigging, anchors, cables, proviſions, and firing, are all from this uſeful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY on the Malabar coaſt, in ſpeaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands, nothing certain can be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chineſe, Portugueſe, Dutch,

Dutch, and Indian words, are ſo frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in thoſe matters, to know the radical languages. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewiſh, Chriſtian, and other foreign ſuperſtitions.

The ſea which ſeparates the ſouthern point of the peninſula of Kamtſchatka from Japan contains a number of iſlands in a poſition from north-north-eaſt to ſouth-ſouth-weſt, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in ſeveral of them are volcanoes and hot ſprings. The principal of theſe iſlands are inhabited; but ſome of the little ones are intirely deſert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other in reſpect both to their ſituation and natural conſtitution. The foreſts in the more northern ones are compoſed of laryx and pines; thoſe to the ſouthward produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In ſome of them are bears and foxes. The ſea-otter appears on the coaſts of all theſe iſlands, as well as whales, ſea-horſes, ſeals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants have a great likeneſs to the Japaneſe in their manners, language, and perſonal appearance; others very much reſemble the Kamtſchadales. The northern iſlands acknowledge the ſovereignty of the empire of Ruſſia; but thoſe to the ſouth pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians diſcover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are cautious and hoſpitable; but adverſity renders them timid, and prompts them to ſuicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an eſpecial affection for thoſe of their reſpective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they ſpeak and pronounce it ſlowly. The men are employed in hunting, fiſhing for ſea animals and whales, and catching fowls. Their canoes are made of wood that their foreſts produce, or that the ſea caſts upon their ſhores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make cloaths. In the northern iſlands they ſew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The ſouthern iſlanders are more refined and poliſhed than the northern, and carry on a ſort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagle's feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japaneſe utenſils of metal and varniſhed wood, ſkillets, ſabres, different ſtuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all ſorts of trinkets, and ſmall wares.

AFRICA.

A F R I C A.

AFRICA, the third grand diviſion of the globe, is generally repreſented as bearing ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the baſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the Mediterranean, and the point or the top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninſula of a prodigious extent, joined to Aſia only by a neck of land, about ſixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, uſually called the Iſthmus of Suez, and its utmoſt length from north to ſouth, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 ſouth latitude, is 4300 miles; and the broadeſt part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees, to Cape Guarda-fui, near the ſtraits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 eaſt longitude, is 3500 miles from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the eaſt by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divide it from Aſia; on the ſouth by the Southern Ocean; and on the weſt by the great Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America. As the equator divides this extenſive country almoſt in the middle, and the far greateſt part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almoſt inſupportable to an European; it being there increaſed by the reflection of the ſun's rays from vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. The coaſts, however, and banks of rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally fertile, and moſt parts of this region are inhabited, though it it is far from being ſo populous as Europe or Aſia. From what has been ſaid, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, ſnow never falls in the plains: and it ſeldom lies but on the tops of the high mountains. The natives, in theſe ſcorching regions, would as ſoon expect that marble ſhould melt and flow in liquid ſtreams, as that water, by freezing, ſhould loſe its fluidity, be arreſted by the cold, and, ceaſing to flow, become like the ſolid rock.

That the geography of Africa, obſerves major Rennell, has made a ſlower progreſs towards improvement than that of every other part of the world, during the laſt and the preſent century, is to be attributed more to natural cauſes, than to an abſolute want of attention on the part of geography. Formed by the Creator with a contour and ſurface totally unlike the other continents, its interior parts elude all nautic reſearch; whilſt the wars and commerce in which Europeans have taken part, have been confined to very circumſcribed parts of its borders. To the lovers of adventure and novelty, Africa diſplays a moſt ample field; but the qualification of local manners, and in ſome degree of habits, muſt in this caſe be ſuperadded to that of language; and this unqueſtionably renders the undertaking more arduous than that of an ordinary tour.

As both EUROPE, and its adjacent continent, ASIA, are ſpread over with inland ſeas, lakes, or rivers, of the moſt extended navigations, ſo as collectively to aid the tranſport of bulky articles of merchandiſe from one extreme of them to the other; and to form (like ſtepping-ſtones over a brook) a more commodious communication: ſo likewiſe the northern part of the new continent appears to have an almoſt continuous inland navigation; which muſt prove of infinite advantage to its inhabitants, when fully peopled, and contribute to their ſpeedier civilization, in the mean time. But AFRICA ſtands alone in a geographical view. Penetrated by no inland ſeas, like the Mediterranean, Baltic, or Hudſon's Bay; nor overſpread with extenſive lakes,

like thoſe of North America; nor having, in common with the other continents, rivers running from the centre to the extremities; but on the contrary, its regions ſeparated from each other by the leaſt practicable of all boundaries, and deſerts of ſuch formidable extent, as to threaten thoſe who traverſe them, with the moſt horrible of all deaths, that ariſing from thirſt! Placed in ſuch circumſtances, can we be ſurpriſed either at our ignorance of its interior part, or of the tardy progreſs of civilization in it? Poſſibly the difficulty of conveying merchandiſe to the coaſts, under the above circumſtances, may have given riſe to the traffic in men, a commodity that can tranſport itſelf! But laying this out of the queſtion, as an abſtract ſpeculation; there can be little doubt but that the progreſs of civilization amongſt the Africans, has been as ſlow as can be conceived in any ſituation: and it has alſo happened that the deſtined inſtruments of their civilizaton, have remained in a proportionable degree of ignorance concerning the nature of the country.

Nothing can evince the low ſtate of the African geography, more than M. D'Anville's having had recourſe to the works of Ptolemy and Edriſi, to compoſe the interior part of his map of Africa (1749). It is well known that thoſe authors wrote in the ſecond and in the twelfth centuries of our æra. Moſt of the poſitions in the inland part of the great body of Africa are derived from Edriſi; and it is wonderful how nearly ſome of the poſitions agree with thoſe furniſhed by the lateſt obſervations. Such was the tranſcendant judgment of D'Anville, in combining the ſcanty notices that are furniſhed by the Nubian geographer!

But the public are not to expect, even under an improved ſyſtem of African geography, that the interior part of that continent will exhibit an aſpect ſimilar to the others; rich in variety; each region aſſuming a diſtinct character. On the contrary, it will be meagre and vacant in the extreme. The dreary expanſes of deſert which often ſurround the habitable ſpots, forbid the appearance of the uſual proportion of towns; and the paucity of rivers, added to their being either abſorbed or evaporated, inſtead of being conducted in flowing lines to the ocean, will give a ſingular caſt to its hydrography; the direction of their courſes, being moreover, equivocal, through the want of that information, which a communication with the ſea uſually affords at a glance.

The ſociety for promoting the diſcovery of the interior parts of Africa has been fortunate in collecting much geographical information in ſo early a ſtage of the African reſearches; and there is little doubt but that, in a few years, all the great features of this continent (within the reach of their enquiries) may be known and deſcribed. But to accompliſh this, it will be neceſſary that intelligent Europeans ſhould trace ſome of the principal routes; as well to apportion the diſtances, as to eſtabliſh ſome kind of criterion for the parole information derived from the natives. As yet, in the wide extent of near thirty degrees on a meridian, between Benin and Tripoli, not one celeſtial obſervation has been taken to determine the latitude *.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or weſtern ocean at Senegal, after a courſe of 2800 miles †. It increaſes and de-

* Major Rennell's Memoir of his Map of the Northern Parts of Africa, printed by the African Aſſociation, at the end of their Proceedings.

† This is extremely difficult, if not impoſſible to aſcertain. For (according to Mr. Lucas's communications to the african Aſſociation) both the riſe and termination of the Niger are unknown, but the courſe is from eaſt to weſt. So great is its rapidity, that no veſſel can aſcend its ſtream: and ſuch is the want of ſkill, or ſuch the abſence of commercial inducements among the nations who inhabit its borders, that even with the current neither veſſels nor boats are ſeen to navigate. In one place, indeed, the traveller finds accommodations for the paſſage of himſelf and of his goods; but even there though the ferrymen, by the indulgence of the ſultan of Caſhna, are exempted from all taxes, the boat which conveys the merchandize is nothing more than an ill-conſtructed raft, for

decreaſes as the Nile, fertiliſes the country, and contains grains of gold intermixed with its ſand. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile divides Egypt into two parts, and diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious courſe from its ſource in Abyſſinia.

The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the weſtern ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt. It had its name from the king of Mauritania, a great lover of aſtronomy, who uſed to obſerve the ſtars from its ſummit; on which account the poets repreſent him as bearing the heavens on his ſhoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themſelves between Abyſſinia and Monomotapa, are ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas. Thoſe of Sierra Leona, or the mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. Theſe were ſtyled by the ancients the mountains of God, on account of their being ſubject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their firſt meridian, riſes about two miles high in the form of a ſugar-loaf, and is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name near the coaſt. The moſt noted capes or promontories in this country are, Cape Verd; ſo called, becauſe the land is always covered with green trees and moſſy ground; it is the moſt weſterly point of the continent of Africa. The Cap of Good Hope, ſo denominated by the Portugueſe, when they firſt went round it in 1498, and diſcovered the paſſage to Aſia. It is the ſouthern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; at preſent in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ſhips of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one ſtrait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian ocean.

The ſituation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, ſtanding as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the reſt. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueſe, the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the French, who have ſettlements on its coaſts, but that of the moſt authentic hiſtorians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of ſea-coaſt, with noble, large, deep rivers, it ſhould be inhabited by barbarous or ſavage nations. At the mouths of many of its rivers are the moſt excellent harbours, deep, ſafe, calm, and ſheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly ſecure by fortifications; but quite deſtitute of ſhipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandiſe. In ſhort, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful, as well as con-

the planks are faſtened to the timbers with ropes, and the ſeams are cloſed both within and without, by a plaiſter of tough clay, of which a large proviſion is always carried on the raft, for the purpoſe of excluding the ſtream wherever its entrance is obſerved.

The depth of the river at the place of paſſage, which is more than a hundred miles to the ſouth of the city of Caſhna, the capital of the empire of that name, is eſtimated at twenty-three or twenty-four feet Engliſh.

Its width is ſuch, that even at the iſland of Gongoo, where the ferrymen reſide, the ſound of the loudeſt voice from the northern ſhore is ſcarcely heard; and at Tombuctou, where the name of Gnewa, or black, is given to the ſtream, the width is deſcribed as being that of the Thames at Weſtminſter. In the rainy ſeaſon it ſwells above its banks, and not only floods the adjacent lands, but often ſweeps before it the cattle and cottages of the ſhort-ſighted, or too confident inhabitants. That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger ſhould refuſe to profit by its navigation, may juſtly ſurprize the traveller; but much greater is his aſtoniſhment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the ſtream would give, is uſeleſsly offered to their acceptance; for ſuch is the want of ſkill, or ſuch the ſettled diſlike of the people to this ſort of proviſion, that the fiſh with which the river abounds, are left in undiſturbed poſſeſſion of its waters.——Proceedings of the African Aſſociation, p. 183—186.

venient, within itſelf, ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unſolicitous of reaping the benefits which Nature has provided for them, but alſo by the more civilized Europeans who are ſettled in it, particularly the Portugueſe.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itſelf, extended her commerce to every part of the ancient world; even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and by degrees all the neighbouring kingdoms and ſtates. After this, the natives, conſtantly plundered, and conſequently impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary, in the ſeventh century. Theſe were ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whoſe profeſſors carried deſolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with reſpect to religion, may be divided into three ſorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and they are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are alſo ſome Jews, on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country enjoys.

There are ſcarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern diviſions of Africa; and for this very reaſon, that ſcarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and conſequently we muſt acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the inland nations, which may be ſtill reckoned among the unknown and undiſcovered parts of the world; but, according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following Table.

	Nations.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. from London.	Diff. of time from London	Religions.
Barbary.	Morocco, Tafilet, &c.	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom.
	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Mahom.
	Tripoli	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Mahom.
	Barca	400	300	66,400	Polemeta	1440 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 21 bef.	Mahom.
Up. Ethiop.	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans.
	Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Tegeſſa	800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans.
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans.
	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans.
	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 S. E.	2 12 bef.	Ma. & Pa.
	Abyſſinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 S. E.	2 20 bef.	Chriſtians.
	Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 S. E.	2 36 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	The middle parts, called the Lower Ethiophia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 ſquare miles.							
Low. Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans.
	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans.
	Ajan	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans.
	Zanguebar	1400	350	275,00	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans.
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
	Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans.
	Sofola	480	300	97,000	Sofola	4600 S. E.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,900	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans.
	Caffraria or Hottentot	708	660	200,340	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Moſt ſtupid Pag.

The principal iſlands of Africa lie in the India ſeas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and ſerve to refreſh their ſhipping to and from India:

Iſlands.	Sq. M.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to
Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea		Babel Mandel	All nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calauſia	Ditto
The Comora Iſles, ditto	1,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagaſcar, ditto	168,000	St. Auſtin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	1,840	Mauritius	French
Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
S. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena	Engliſh
Aſcenſion, ditto			Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes iſland, Fernandopo	ditto	St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portugueſe
Cape Verd Iſlands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto		Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto		Palma, St. Chriſtophers	Spaniſh
Madeiras, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portugueſe
The Azores, or Weſtern Iſles lie nearly at an equal diſtance from Europe, Africa, and America	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having

Having given the reader ſome idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their ſuppoſed dimenſions, we ſhall now conſider it under four grand diviſions: firſt, Egypt; ſecondly the ſtates of Barbary, ſtretching along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the eaſt, to the Atlantic Ocean, weſt; thirdly, the kingdoms of Abyſſinia, Fezzan, Bornou, and Caſhna; and, laſtly, that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope: the laſt of theſe diviſions, indeed, is vaſtly greater than the other three; but the nations which it contains are ſo little known, and ſo barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, ſo ſimilar in moſt reſpects to each other, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

EGYPT.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 Breadth 250	between	20 and 32 north latitude. 28 and 36 eaſt longitude.	140,700.

Boundaries.] It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, Eaſt; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the deſert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Northern diviſion contains	Lower Egypt	Grand Cairo, E. lon. 32. N. lat. 30.
		Bulac
		Alexandria
		Roſetto
		Damietta
Southern diviſion contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd or Thebes
		Coſſiar.

Air.] It is obſerved by M. Volney, that during eight months of the year (from March to November) the heat is almoſt inſupportable by an European. "During the whole of this ſeaſon, the air is inflamed, the ſky ſparkling, and the heat oppreſſive to all unaccuſtomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The ſoutherly winds which ſometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poiſonous* winds, or the *hot winds of the deſert*. They are of ſuch extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body expoſed to it can withſtand its fatal influence. During the three days which it generally laſts, the ſtreets are deſerted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind ſurpriſes remote from ſhelter; when it exceeds three days it is inſupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almoſt blinded with drifts of ſand. Theſe evils are remedied by the riſing and overflowing of the Nile.

Soil and produce.] Whoever is in the leaſt acquainted with literature, knows that the vaſt fertility of Egypt is owing to the annual inundation of the Nile, occaſioned

caſioned by the rains which fall during May, June, and July, in Abyſſinia and the neighbouring countries of Africa. According to Mr. Volney, the commencement of the inundation is not entirely aſcertained, though the Copies fix it at the 19th of June. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be ſeen in the plains, but the tops of foreſts and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with various feſtivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkiſh baſha, attended by his grandees; but, according to captain Norden, who was preſent on the occaſion, the ſpectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is let into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is diſtributed into cuts, for ſupplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, ſuch is the fertility of the ſoil, that the labour of the huſbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about ſix weeks, nothing can be more charming than the proſpect, which the face of the country preſents, in riſing corn, vegetables, and verdure of every ſort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulſe, melons, ſugar-canes, and other plants, which require moiſture, is ſupplied by ſmall, but regular cuts from ciſterns and reſervoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harveſt months, and produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants), one of corn and one of melons. The Egyptian paſturage is equally prolific, moſt of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the ſheep four lambs a year.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is ſaid, that the inhabitants employ every day 20,000 oxen in raiſing water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of aſſes, upon which the Chriſtians ride, being inſolently debarred by the Turks from riding on any other beaſt. The Egyptian horſes are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great ſpeed, turn ſhort, ſtop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horſe, an amphibious animal, reſembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head of a horſe, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes with the head like a dog, and the rat, called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal ſomething reſembling a lizard, that changes colour as you ſtand to look upon him, is found here as well as in neighbouring countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to Egypt, but there does not ſeem to be any material difference between it and the aligators of India, and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four ſhort legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable ſcales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the ſedge, and other cover, on the ſides of the rivers; and, pretty much reſembling the trunk of an old tree, ſometimes ſurpriſes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewiſe great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) ſomewhat reſembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its deſtroying ſerpents and peſtiferous inſects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a ſpecies of them is ſaid to have been lately diſcovered in other parts of Africa.

Oſtriches

Oſtriches are common here, and are ſo ſtrong that the Arabs ſometimes ride upon their backs.

The Ceraſtes, or horned viper, inhabits the greateſt part of the eaſtern continent, eſpecially the deſert ſandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa. I apprehend this to be the aſpic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully ſupplied by water, muſt then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baſkets of figs muſt have come from thence, and the aſpic, or ceraſtes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining deſert, where there are plenty to this day.

The poiſon is very copious for ſo ſmall a creature; it is fully as large as a drop of laudanum dropt from a vial by a careful hand. Viewed through a glaſs, it appears not perfectly tranſparent or pellucid. People have doubted whether or not this yellow liquor is the poiſon, and the reaſon has been, that animals who had taſted it did not die as when bitten, but this reaſon does not hold in modern phyſics. We know why the ſaliva of a mad dog has been given to animals and has not affected them; and a German phyſician was bold enough to diſtil the pus, or putrid matter flowing from the ulcer of a perſon infected by the plague, and taſte it afterwards without any bad conſequences; ſo that it is clear the poiſon has no activity, till through ſome ſore or wound it is admitted into circulation.

There are few ſubjects of more curious inveſtigation, than the incantation of ſerpents. There is no doubt of its reality. The ſcriptures are full of it †. All that have been in Egypt have ſeen as many different inſtances as they choſe. Some have doubted that it was a trick, and that the animals ſo handled had been firſt trained, and then diſarmed of their powers of hurting; and fond of the diſcovery they have reſted themſelves upon it, without experiment, in the face of all antiquity. But I will not hefitate to aver (ſays Mr. Bruce) that I have ſeen at Cairo (and this may be ſeen daily without trouble or expence) a man who has taken a ceraſtes with his naked hands from a number of others lying at the bottom of the tub, has put it upon his bare head, covered it with the common red cap he wears, then taken it out, put it in his breaſt, and tied it about his neck like a necklace; after which it has been applied to a hen, and bit it, which has died in a few minutes.

We know from hiſtory, that where any country has been remarkably infeſted with ſerpents, there the people have been ſcreened by this ſecret. The Pſylli and Marmarides of old were undoubtedly defended in this manner,

Ad quorum cantus mites jacuere ceraſtæ. Sil. Ital. lib. iii.

To leave ancient hiſtory, I can myſelf vouch, (ſays our author) that all the black people in the kingdom of Sennaar, whether Funge or Nuba, are perfectly armed againſt the bite of either ſcorpion or viper. They take the ceraſtes in their hands at all times, put them in their boſoms, and throw them to one another as children do apples or balls, without having irritated them by this uſage ſo much as to bite. The Arabs have not this ſecret naturally, but from their infancy they acquire an exemption from the mortal conſequences attending the bite of theſe animals, by chewing a certain root, and waſhing themſelves (it is not anointing) with an infuſion of certain plants in water.

One day when I was with the brother of Shekh Adelan, prime miniſter of Sennaar, a ſlave of his brought a ceraſtes, which he had juſt then taken out of a hole, and was uſing it with every ſort of familiarity. I told him my ſuſpicion that the

† Jerem. viii. 17. Pſal. lviii. 5.

teeth

teeth had been drawn, but he aſſured me they were not, as did his maſter Kittou, who took it from him, wound it round his arm, and at my deſire ordered the ſervant to carry it home with me. I took a chicken by the neck, and made it flutter before him, his ſeeming indifference left him, and he bit it with great ſigns of anger, the chicken died almoſt immediately; I ſay his ſeeming indifference, for I conſtantly obſerved, that however lively the viper was before, upon being ſeized by any of theſe barbarians, he ſeemed as if taken with ſickneſs and feebleneſs, frequently ſhut his eyes, and never turned his mouth towards the arm of the perſon that held him. I aſked Kittou how they come to be exempted from this miſchief? he ſaid they were born ſo, and ſo ſaid the grave and reſpectable men among them. Many of the lighter and lower ſort talked of enchantments by words and by writing, but they all knew how to prepare any perſon by medicines, which were decoctions of herbs and roots.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] As the population of Egypt is almoſt confined to the banks of the Nile, and the reſt of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can ſay little upon this head with preciſion. It ſeems to be certain that Egypt is at preſent not near ſo populous as formerly, and its depopulation is owing to anarchy and peſpotiſm. According to Mr. Volney, the number of inhabitants may amount to 2,300,000, of which Cairo contains about 250,000. This country is inhabited by four different races of people; the Turks who *pretend* to be maſters of the country; the Arabs who were conquered by the Turks; the Coptes, who are deſcended from the ancient Egyptians mixed with the Perſians, Greeks, and Romans, who ſucceſſively conquered Egypt; and the Mamalouks, who were originally Circaſſian and Mingrelian ſlaves, and being the only military force, are the *real* maſters of the country.

The Turks, who reſide in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and inſolence, and wear the Turkiſh habit, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Arabs and Coptes, who dreſs very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dreſs is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Chriſtians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather ſlippers, the other natives of their country wear red, and the foreign Chriſtians yellow. The dreſs of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their cloaths are ſilk, when they can afford it; and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions and features. The Coptes are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exerciſes and diverſions are much the ſame as thoſe made uſe of in Perſia, and other Aſiatic countries. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling ſlight-of-hand-men.

RELIGION.] To what I have already ſaid concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthuſiaſts, and have among them their *ſantos*, or fellows who pretend to a ſuperior degree of holineſs, and without any ceremony intrude into the beſt houſes, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to ſay what ſpecies of Chriſtianity is profeſſed by the Chriſtian Coptis, who are here numerous, but they profeſs themſelves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchaſes a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the moſt ancient language of Egypt. This was ſucceeded

ſucceeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the califate, when the Arabs diſpoſſeſſed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabeſque, as it is called, is ſtill the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be ſpoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is ſuppoſed that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet ſcarcely a veſtige of it remains among their deſcendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan maſters; but here it is proper to make one obſervation which is of general uſe. The califs or Saracens who ſubdued Egypt were of three kinds. The firſt, who were the immediate ſucceſſors of Mahomet, made war, from conſcience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, except the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took poſſeſſion of Alexandria, which contained the moſt magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuſcripts were applied for ſome months to cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The ſame fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The califs of the ſecond race were men of taſte and learning, but of a peculiar ſtrain. They bought up all the manuſcripts, that ſurvived the general conflagration, relating to aſtronomy, medicine, and ſome uſeleſs parts of philoſophy; but they had no taſte for the Greek arts, ſciences, hiſtory, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, eſpecially thoſe who called themſelves califs of Egypt, diſgraced human nature; and the Turks have riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they impoſed.

All the learning therefore poſſeſſed by the modern Egyptians conſiſts in arithmetical calculations for the diſpatch of buſineſs, the jargon of aſtrology, a few noſtrums in medicine, and ſome knowledge of Arabeſque or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with theſe than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often deſcribed. Their antiquity is beyond the reſearches of hiſtory itſelf, and their original uſes are ſtill unknown. They are eleven in number, and diſtant four leagues from Cairo. The baſis of the largeſt covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but, if meaſured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet *. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and ſeventeen broad, in which is a marble cheſt, but without either cover or contents, ſuppoſed to have been deſigned for the tomb of the founder, who, according to Herodotus, was Cheops, the Egyptian king, who immediately ſucceeded Proteus, in the ninth century before Chriſt.

The mummy pits, ſo called for their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are ſubterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now loſt. It is ſaid that ſome of the bodies, thus embalmed, are perfect and diſtinct at this day, though burried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curioſity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themſelves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock conſiſting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houſes, the intricacies of which occaſion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which ſtill ſubſiſt, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, moſtly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole

* Mr. Volney ſays that a late menſuration aſſigns to each face of the great pyramid, ſix hundred feet; and its perpendicular height four hundred and eighty feet.

country towards Grand Cairo is a continued ſcene of antiquities, of which the oldeſt are the moſt ſtupendous, but the more modern the moſt beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its ſculptures, are admirable.

Pompey's pillar which is ſituated on a rock, about a mile without the gates of the city of Alexandria, is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the ſhaft of which is one ſtone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and pedeſtal. The whole of the pillar is granite, but the capital is of another ſtone. This magnificent monument appears, in taſte, (ſays Mr. Bruce) to be the work of that period between Hadrian and Severus; but, though the former erected ſeveral large buildings in the eaſt, it is obſerved of him that he never put inſcriptions upon them. This pillar has had a Greek inſcription, and I think, may very probably be attributed to the time of the latter, as a monument of the gratitude of the city of Alexandria for the benefits he conferred on them, eſpecially ſince no ancient hiſtory mentions its exiſtence at an earlier period. I apprehend it to have been brought in a block from the Thebais in Upper Egypt, by the Nile; though ſome have imagined it was an old obeliſk, hewn to the round form of a pillar. The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the ſhoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.——The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe.

"The payrus (which is one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, and ſerved the ancients to write upon) is a cyperus, called by the Greeks Biblus. There is no doubt but it was early known in Egypt. Pliny ſays that Varro writes that the papyrus came not into general uſe till after the conqueſt of Egypt by Alexander; yet it is plain from Anacreon *, Alcæus, Æſchylus, and the comic poets, that it was known in their time. Plato and Ariſtole ſpeak of it alſo, ſo do Herodotus, and Theophraſtus †. We alſo know it was of old in uſe among the Ionians, who probably brought it in very early days directly from Egypt. Numa, too, who lived 300 years before Alexander, is ſaid to have left a number of books written on the papyrus, which a long time after his death were found at Rome.

" With Ariſtotle began the firſt arrangement of a library. Alexander's conqueſt, and the building of Alexandria, laid open Egypt, its trade, and learning, to the world. Papyrus then, or the paper made from it, was the only material made uſe of for writing upon. A violent deſire of amaſſing books, and a library, immediately followed, which we may ſafely attribute to the example ſet by Ariſtotle.

" The Ptolemies, and the kings of Pergamus, contended who ſhould make the largeſt collection. The Ptolemies, maſters of Egypt, and of the papyrus, availed themſelves of this monopoly to hinder the multiplication of books in Greece. The other princes probably ſmuggled this plant, and propagated it wherever it would grow out of Egypt. And Eumenes king of Pergamus ſet about bringing to perfection the manufacture of parchment, which, long before, the Ionians had uſed from the ſcarcity of paper; for whatever reſemblance there might be in names, or whatever may be inferred from them, writing upon ſkins or parchment was much more ancient than any city or ſtate in Greece, and in uſe probably before Greece was inhabited. The Jews we know made uſe of it in the earlieſt ages. At this very time which we are now ſpeaking of, we learn from Joſephus ‡, that the elders, by order of the high prieſts, carried a copy of the law to Ptolemy Philadelphus in letters of gold upon ſkins, the pieces of who were ſo artfully put together that the joinings did not appear.

* Anac. Odeiv. † Theoph. Hiſt. Plant. lib. iv. 9. ‡ Joſeph. lib. xii. p. 405.

" In

"In a large and very perfect manuſcript in my poſſeſſion (ſays, Mr. Bruce), which was dug up at Thebes, the boards are of papyrus root, covered firſt with the coarſer pieces of the paper, and then with leather in the ſame manner as it would be done now. It is a book one would call a ſmall folio, rather than by any other name, and I apprehend that the ſhape of the book where papyrus is employed was always of the ſame form with thoſe of the moderns. The letters are ſtrong, deep, black, and apparently written with a reed, as is practiſed by the Egyptains and Abyſſinians ſtill. It is written on both ſides, ſo never could be rolled up as parchment was, nor would the brittleneſs of the materials when dry, ſupport any ſuch frequent unrolling.

"If the date of the invention of the uſeful art of making paper is doubtful, the time when it was loſt, or ſuperſeded by one more convenient, is as uncertain. Euſtathius ſays it was diſuſed in his time, in the year 1170. Mabillon endeavours to prove it exiſted in the ninth, and even that there exiſted ſome Popiſh bulls written upon it as late as the eleventh century. He gives, as inſtances, a part of St. Mark's Goſpel preſerved at Venice, as being upon papyrus, and the fragments of Joſephus at Milan to be cotton paper, while Maffei proves this to be juſt the reverſe, that of St. Mark being cotton, and the other indiſputably he thinks to be Egyptian papyrus, ſo that Mabillon's authority as to the bulls of the pope may be fairly queſtioned.

"The ſeveral times I have been at theſe places mentioned, I have never ſucceeded in ſeeing any of theſe pieces; that of St. Mark at Venice I was aſſured had been recogniſed to be cotton paper; it was rendered not legible by the warm ſaliva of zealots kiſſing it from devotion, which I can eaſily comprehend muſt contain a very coroſive quality, and the Venetians now reſuſe to ſhew it more *."

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES. Even a ſlight review of theſe would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are ſtill entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as freſh and vivid as when firſt laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coaſt, was once the emporium of the world, and by the means of the Red Sea furniſhed Europe, and great part of Aſia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder Alexander the Great. It ſtands forty miles weſt from the Nile, and is a hundred and twenty north-weſt of Cairo. It roſe upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-houſe erected on the oppoſite iſland of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deſervedly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. The mole which was built to form a communication with the iſland of Pharos is 1000 yards in length, and though near 2000 years old, the excellence of its materials has reſiſted, in a great meaſure, the violence of winds and waves ever ſince. All the parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the ciſterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at preſent is a very ordinary ſea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithſtanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their moſques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within theſe ruins, preſerve an inexpreſſible air of majeſty. "It is thinly inhabited, and there is a tradition among the natives that, more than once, it has been in agitation to abandon it all together, and retire to Roſetta, or Cairo, but that they have been witheld by the opinion of divers ſaints from Arabia, who have aſſured them, that Mecca being deſtroyed, (as it muſt be they think by the Ruſſians) Alexandria is then to become *the holy place*, and that Mahomet's body is to be tranſported thither: when that city

* Bruce's Travels, 4to. vol. v. p. 1, 2, 3, 5, &c.

is deſtroyed, the ſanctified relics are to be tranſported to Carouan, in the kingdom of Tunis: laſtly, from Carouan they are to come to Roſetta, and there to remain till the conſummation of all things *."

Roſetta, or Raſchid, ſtands twenty-five miles to the north-weſt of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful ſituation, and the delightful proſpects which command the fine country, or iſland of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewiſe a place of great trade. The length of the city is two miles, but it is only half a mile broad. In the environs are many country houſes belonging to Chriſtian merchants, with fine gardens, producing the choiceſt fruits of the Eaſt. The Mahometan inhabitants are here alſo particularly civil and polite.

Cairo, now Maſr, the preſent capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a diſagreeable reſidence, on account of its peſtilential air, and narrow ſtreets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old caſtle, the works of which are ſaid to be three miles in circumference. This caſtle is ſaid to have been built by Saladine: at the weſt end are the remains of very noble apartments, ſome of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Moſaic work; but theſe apartments are now only uſed for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually ſent to Mecca. The well, called Joſeph's well, is a curious piece of mechaniſm, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is ſtill revered in Egypt, where they ſhew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vaſt antiquity; but it is very queſtionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is ſhewn in old Cairo, but captain Norden ſuſpects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any high idea of the buildings of the city itſelf. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gize, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles weſt, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Chriſtians of Cairo practiſe a holy cheat, during the Eaſter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead ariſe from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The ſtreets of Cairo are peſtered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of a drum, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Peluſium; Seyd, on the weſt banks of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo, ſaid to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; and Coſſiar, on the weſt coaſt of the Red Sea. The general practice of ſtrangers, who viſit thoſe places, is to hire a Janizary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the iſthmus, that joins Africa with Aſia. The children of Iſrael are ſuppoſed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red Sea. This ſea appears to have certainly derived its name from Edom, long and early its powerful maſter, that word ſignifying Red in Hebrew. It formerly went by the name of the ſea of Edom, or Idumea, ſince, by that of the Red Sea. Almoſt every object and village in this country preſents ſome amazing piece of antiquity. The difficulties in viſiting it are great; ſo that the accounts we can depend upon are but few, nor do they always agree together.

MARBLE QUARRIES.] "It has been a wonder (ſays Mr. Bruce in his journey acroſs the deſert of the Thebaid from Kennê to Coſſeir) with all travellers, and with

* Bruce's Travels, 4to. vol. i. p. 15.

myſelf

myſelf among the reſt, where the ancients procured that prodigious quantity of fine marble, with which all their buildings abound. That wonder, however, among many others, now ceaſes, after having paſſed, in four days, more granite, porphyry, marble, and jaſper, than would build Rome, Athens, Cornith, Syracuſe, Memphis, Alexandria, and half a dozen ſuch cities. It ſeemed to be very viſible, that thoſe openings in the hills, which I call defiles, were not natural, but artificial, and that whole mountains had been cut out at theſe places.

"The prophyry ſhews itſelf by a fine purple ſand, without any gloſs, or glitter on it, and is exceedingly agreeable to the eye. It is mixed with the native white ſand, and fixed gravel of the plains. Green unvariegated marble is generally ſeen in the ſame mountain with the porphyry. Where the two veins meet, the marble is for ſome inches brittle, but the porphyry of the ſame hardneſs as in other places.

"The granite is covered with ſands, and looks like ſtone of a dirty, brown colour. But this is only the change and impreſſion the ſun and weather have made upon it; for upon breaking it, you ſee it is grey granite, with black ſpots, with a reddiſh caſt, or bluſh over it. This red ſeems to fade, or ſuffer from the outward air, but, upon working or poliſhing the ſurface, this colour again appears. It is in greater quantity than the porphyry, and nearer the Red Sea. Pompey's pillar ſeems to have been from this quarry.

"Next to the granite, but never, as I obſerved, joined with it in the ſame mountain, is the red marble. It is covered with ſand of the ſame colour, and looks as if the whole mountain were ſpread over with brick duſt. There is alſo a red marble with white veins, which I have often ſeen at Rome, but not in principal ſubjects. I have alſo ſeen it in Britain. The common green (called ſerpentine) looks as if covered over with Brazil ſnuff. Joined with this green, I ſaw two ſamples of that beautiful marble, they call Iſabella; one of them with a yellowiſh caſt, which we call Quaker-colour, the other with a blueiſh, which is commonly termed dove-colour. In this green, likewiſe, it was we ſaw the vein of jaſper; but whether it was abſolutely the ſame with this, which is the bloody jaſper, or blood-ſtone, is what we had not time to ſettle.

"I ſhould firſt have made mention of the verde antico, the dark green with white irregular ſpots, becauſe it is of the greateſt value, and neareſt the Nile. This is produced in the mountains of the plain green, or ſerpentine, as is the jaſper, and is not diſcoverable by the duſt, or any particular colour upon it. Firſt, there is a blue ſleaky ſtone. After lifting this, we come to the beds of the verde antico; and here the quarrying is very obvious, for it has been uncovered in patches, not above twenty-feet ſquare. Then, in another part, the green ſtone has been removed, and another pit of it wrought.

"I ſaw, in ſeveral places in the plain, ſmall pieces of African marble ſcattered about, but no rocks or mountains of it. This prodigious ſtore of marble is placed upon a ridge, whence there is a deſcent to the eaſt, or weſt, either to the Nile or Red Sea. The level ground, and hard-fixed gravel are proper for the heavieſt carriages, and will eaſily and ſmoothly convey any weight whatever to its place of embarkation on the Nile; ſo that another wonder ceaſed, how the ancients tranſported thoſe vaſt blocks of marble to Thebes, Memphis, and Alexandria *."

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export prodigious quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all ſorts, callicoes, yellow wax, ſal ammoniac, ſaffron, ſugar, ſena, and caſſia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, ſpices, callicoes, and other merchandiſes, which

* Bruce's Travels, 4to. Vol. i. p. 186, 187, 188.

are

are landed at Suez, from whence they ſend them to Europe. Several European ſtates have conſuls reſident in Egypt, but the cuſtoms of the Turkiſh government are managed by Jews. A number of Engliſh veſſels arrive yearly at Alexandria; ſome of which are laden on account of the owners, but moſt of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] A viceroy is ſent to Egypt from the Porte under the title of the paſha or baſhaw of Cairo, and is one of the greateſt officers of the Ottoman empire. But ſince the revolution of Ali Bey, the power of the Turks in Egypt is more precarious than in any other province. The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the paſha. The republican, or rather the ariſtocratical part of the government, conſiſts of a divan, compoſed of twenty-four ſangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the ſheik bellet, who is choſen by the divan, and confirmed by the paſha. Every one of the ſangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts ſovereign power; the major part of them reſide at Cairo. If the grand ſignior's paſha acts in oppoſition to the ſenſe of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not ſuffer him to continue in his poſt, and the Porte is obliged to ſend another. They have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year Sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] Theſe are very inconſiderable, when compared with the natural riches of the country, and the deſpotiſm of its government. Some ſay they amount to a million ſterling, but that two thirds of the whole is ſpent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſts in the Mamalukes, ſome bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages to exact tribute, and ſupport authority. The greater part are aſſembled at Cairo. They amount to about eight thouſand men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to ſet the Turks at defiance.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed that the princes of the line of the Pharoahs ſat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, till Cambyſes, the ſecond king of Perſia, conquered the Egyptians 520 years before the birth of Chriſt; and that in the reign of thoſe princes, the pyramids were raiſed; ſtructures, which cannot now be viewed without aſtoniſhment. Egypt continued a part of the Perſian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquiſhed Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who ſoon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conqueſts of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being ſeized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the ſhare of Ptolemy, by ſome ſuppoſed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Chriſt. His ſucceſſors, who ſometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and ſiſter of Ptolemy Dionyſius, the laſt king, aſcended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been miſtreſs ſucceſſively to Julius Cæſar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the ſecond calif of the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, ſaid to conſiſt of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy; and the ſame prince cauſed the Old Teſtament to be tranſlated into Greek, but whether by ſeventy-two interpreters, and in the manner commonly related, is juſtly queſtioned: this tranſlation is known by the name of the Septuagint. Omar ſubjected Egypt to the Mahometan power, about the year 640, and the califs of Babylon were ſovereigns of the

the country till 870, when the Egyptians ſet up a governor of their own called the calif of Cairo.

About the time of the cruſades, between the year 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, the Saracen ſultan of Damaſcus, whoſe ſon, the famous Saladine, proved ſo formidable to thoſe Chriſtian adventurers, and retook from them Jeruſalem. He inſtituted the military corps of Mamalukes, like the Janizaries of Conſtantinople, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after choſe their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for ſome time, made a figure under thoſe illuſtrious uſurpers, and made a noble ſtand againſt the prevailing power of the Turks, till under Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes ſeveral bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection.

While Selim was ſettling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deſerts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate thoſe marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their poſterity is known all over Europe and Aſia, by the name of Gipſies. Of late, however, many of them have incorporated with, and adopted the manners of, the people among whom they reſide.

An attempt was made a few years ſince to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt by Ali Bey, whoſe father was a prieſt of the Greek church. Ali turned Mahometan, and being a man of great abilities and addreſs, rendered himſelf extremely popular in Egypt. A falſe accuſation having been made againſt him to the grand ſignior, his head was ordered to be ſent to Conſtantinople, but being apprized of the deſign, he ſeized and put to death the meſſenger who brought the order, and was ſoon enabled to put himſelf at the head of an army. Taking advantage of the diſtreſsful and dangerous ſituation to which the Turkiſh empire was reduced, in conſequence of the war with Ruſſia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient ſultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he alſo laid claim to Syria, Paleſtine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient ſultans. He marched at the head of his troops to ſupport theſe pretenſions, and actually ſubdued ſome of the neighbouring provinces both of Arabia and Syria. At the ſame time that we was engaged in theſe great enterprizes, he was not leſs attentive to the eſtabliſhing of a regular form of government, and introducing order into a country that had been long the ſeat of anarchy and confuſion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpoſe he gave great encouragement to the Chriſtian traders, and took off ſome ſhameful reſtraints and indignities, to which they were ſubjected in that barbarous country. He alſo wrote a latter to the republic of Venice, with the greateſt aſſurances of his friendſhip, and that their merchants ſhould meet with every degree of protection and ſafety. His great deſign was ſaid to be, to make himſelf maſter of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to render Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey ſhewed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and beſpoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire: but he was not finally ſucceſsful. He was however, for ſome time extremely fortunate; he aſſumed the titles and ſtate of the ancient Sultans of Egypt, and was ably ſupported by Sheick Daher, and ſome other Arabian princes, who warmly eſpouſed his intereſts. He alſo ſucceeded in almoſt all his enterprizes againſt the neighbouring Aſiatic governors and baſhas, whom he

he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt by the baſe and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in law, Mahomed Bey Aboudaab, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March 1773, and himſelf wounded and taken priſoner: he died of his wounds, and was buried at Grand Cairo. Aboudaab afterwards governed Egypt as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Paleſtine to ſubdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, ſuppoſed to be ſtrangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amneſty, and truſting to their aſſurances, embraced the captain paſha's invitation to dine on board his ſhip, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age. From that time Egypt has been torn by a civil war, between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes, who roſe on his ruins. Of theſe the principal are Morad and Ybrahim, who having driven their enemies into baniſhment, began to quarrel among themſelves. Alternately expelled from Cairo, they finally agreed to a compromiſe, March, 1785; but it is not expected that their agreement will be laſting.

The Porte ſtill retains a paſha in Egypt but this paſha, confined and watched in the caſtle of Cairo, is rather the priſoner of the Mamalouks, than the repreſentative of the ſultan.

THE STATES OF BARBARY*.

UNDER this head I ſhall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean ſea; on the South, by Tafilet; and on the Eaſt, by Segelmeſſa and the kingdom of Algiers, being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the ſame in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the Eaſt, and Morocco on the South, and is ſurrounded in other parts by the ſea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the Eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis, on the North by the Mediterranean, on the South by Mount Atlas, and on the Weſt by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, who reſided 12 years at Algiers in quality of chaplain to the Britiſh factory, and has corrected many errors of ancient and modern geographers reſpecting the ſtates of Barbary, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the North and Eaſt; by the kingdom of Algiers on the Weſt; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the South; being 220 miles in length from North to South, and 170 in breadth from Eaſt to Weſt.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the North by the Mediterranean ſea; on the South by the country of the Beriberies; on the Weſt by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the Eaſt by Egypt: extending about 1100 miles along the ſea-coaſt; and the breadth is from 100 to 300 miles.

* This territory was called Barbaria by the Greeks and Romans, from Berber, in the original ſignifying *ſhepherd*, which was the original occupation of the inhabitants. Bruce's Travels, Vol. I. p. 384.

Each

Each capital bears the name of the ſtate or kingdom to which it belongs, but the capital of Biledulgerid (the ancient Numidia) is Dara.

This being premiſed, I ſhall conſider the Barbary ſtates as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exerciſe of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the ſame kingdom, in the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed of all the other ſtates, except in the months of July and Auguſt.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] Theſe ſtates, under the Roman empire were juſtly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a reſidence there, was conſidered as the higheſt ſtate of luxury. The produce of their ſoil formed thoſe magazines, which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity of their conſtitution, yet they are ſtill fertile, not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for ſome time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleaſures of life; for their great people find means to evade the ſobriety preſcribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines and ſpirits, of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces ſalt-petre, and great quantities of excellent ſalt; and lead and iron have been found in ſeveral places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the ſtates of Barbary; but their deſerts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monſtrous ſerpents. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now ſaid to be decayed, yet ſome very fine ones are occaſionally imported into England. Dromedaries, aſſes, mules, and kumrahs, a moſt ſerviceable creature, begot by an aſs upon a cow, are their beaſts of burden; but from the ſervices of the camel they derive the greateſt advantages. This uſeful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilſome journies acroſs that continent. The camel is, therefore, (ſays Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the *ſhip of the deſert*. He ſeems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to diſcharge. The drieſt thiſtle, and the bareſt thorn, is all the food this uſeful animal requires, and even theſe, ſo ſave time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without ſtopping, or occaſioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to croſs immenſe deſerts, where no water is found, and countries not even moiſtened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power at one watering-place to to lay in a ſtore with which he ſupplies himſelf for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large ciſterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleaſure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his ſtomach with the ſame effect as if he then drew from a ſpring, and with this he travels, patiently and vigorouſly, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poiſonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling ſands. Their cows are but ſmall, and barren of milk their ſheep yield but indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weaſels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Beſides vermin, ſays Dr. Shaw (ſpeaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehenſions we were under, in ſome parts at leaſt of this country, of being bitten or ſtung by the ſcorpion, the viper, or

the venomous ſpider, rarely failed to interrupt our repoſe; a refreſhment ſo very grateful and ſo highly neceſſary to a weary traveller. Partridges and quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coaſt; and of the ſmaller birds, the capſa-ſparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the ſweetneſs of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to thoſe of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Morocco was formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers ſay, its capital contained 100,000 houſes, whereas at preſent it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants: nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true that their king or emperor has 80,000 horſe and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is ſaid to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves; but no eſtimate can be formed as to the populouſneſs of its territory. Some travellers report, that it is inhabited by a friendly hoſpitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from thoſe of the metropolis.

Tunis is the moſt poliſhed republic of all the Barbary ſtates. The capiral which alſo bears the name of Tunis, is a large and flouriſhing city. The people are more civilized than in Algiers, and the government milder, but the climate is very far from being ſo good. Tunis is low, hot, and damp; and deſtitute of good water, with which (according to Mr. Bruce) Algiers is ſupplied from a thouſand ſprings. It contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradeſmen's ſhops, and its ſuburbs conſiſt of 1000 houſes. The Tuniſines are indeed exceptions to the other ſtates of Barbary; for even the moſt civiliſed of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their diſtinctions are well kept up, and proper reſpect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned profeſſions. They cultivate friendſhip with the European ſtates; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are ſaid at preſent to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The Tuniſine women are exceedingly handſome in their perſons; and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the ſame pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of when ſhe is ſaid (2 Kings, chap. ix. verſe 30.) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen, in general, are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour genteel and complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the ſtreets and city.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a piece with thoſe of the Egyptians already deſcribed. The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, in general ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea. They are notwithſtanding far inferior to the Engliſh, and other European ſtates, in both the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſines, void of all arts and literature. The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, are beyond all deſcription; but thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of the country

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are an hoſpitable inoffenſive people; and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of the Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves. The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople.

DRESS.] The dreſs of theſe people is a linen ſhirt, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of condition ſometimes wear buſkins. They never move their turban, but pull off their ſlippers when they attend religious duties, or the perſon of their ſovereign. They are fond of ſtriped and fancied ſilks. The dreſs of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a ſort of cawls on their heads inſtead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and mattreſſes, on which they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is ſhocking. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat, which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags.

RELIGION.] All foreigners are here allowed the open profeſſion of their religion, but the inhabitants of theſe ſtates are Mahometans; and many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of the Hamed, a modern ſectary, and an enemy to theſe ancient doctrine of the caliſs. All of them have much reſpect for idiots; whoſe protection in ſome caſes ſcreens offenders from puniſhment, for the moſt notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of theſe ſtates are now promiſcuouſly called, (becauſe the Saracens firſt entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors), have adopted the very worſt parts of the Mahometan religion, and ſeem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes with impunity.

LANGUAGE.] As the ſtates of Barbary poſſeſs thoſe countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is ſtill ſpoken in ſome of the inland countries, and even by ſome inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the ſea-port towns, and maritime countries, a baſtard kind of Arabic is ſpoken; and ſea-faring people are no ſtrangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Latin, &c. that is ſo well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. This article is well worth the ſtudy of an antiquary, but the ſubjects of it are difficult of acceſs, being ſcattered over a wide extent of country, inhabited by ignorant and inhoſpitable barbarians. The reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with, and many ruins of cities which bear evidences of their ancient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are ſaid to be ſtill remaining,

but no veſtige of its walls *. The ſame is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and ſo over-run is the country with barbariſm, that their very ſcites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheates, and other public buildings, which remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence, are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract; theſe were erected under the califs of Badgad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was ſubdued by the Turks, or reduced to its preſent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curioſities belonging to this country, except its ſalt-pits, which in ſome places take up an area of ſix miles. Dr. Shaw mentions ſprings found here that are ſo hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almoſt in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fēz, 30 miles diſtant, and very populous. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but the common people live in a dirty ſlovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houſes, and 107 moſques. Their public baths are large, and handſomely paved with marble. The proſpect of the country and ſea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for ſeveral ages it has braved ſome of the greateſt powers in Chriſtendom, could make but a faint defence againſt a regular ſiege, and it is ſaid, that three Engliſh fifty-gun ſhips might batter it about the ears of the inhabitants from the harbour. If ſo, the Spaniards muſt have been very deficient either in courage or conduct. They attacked it in the year 1775, by land and by ſea, but were repulſed with great loſs, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horſe, and 47 king's ſhips of different rates, and 346 tranſports. In the year 1783 and 84, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy the city and gallies, but after ſpending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a ſmall iſland where there is a caſtle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the fineſt of all theſe ſtates, contains the remains of many noble cities, ſome of them ſtill in good condition. The capital, about 30 miles ſouth of old Carthage, has fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The ſtreets (ſays Mr. Stanley) are narrow, as in moſt hot countries; and, not being paved, they are dirty in winter, and duſty in ſummer. The houſes are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; moſt of them have a porch, or gateway, with benches on each ſide, covered with mats, where the maſter of the houſe tranſacts his buſineſs, and receives his friends; no perſons, except on ſome extraordinary occaſions, having any farther admiſſion. Beyond this is an open court paved with marble ſtone, or glazed tiles, according to the ability of the owner, covered over, and ſheltered from the ſun and weather, by a cloth which by means of pullies

* Mr. Stanley, having had frequent opportunities of going over the remains, is of opinion that this celebrated city was about fifteen miles in circumference. There are three eminences, which are ſo many heaps of fine marble pounded together, and were, in all probability, the ſites of temples, and other diſtinguiſhed buildings. He obſerves, that the preſent buildings are not the remains of the ancient city deſtroyed by the Romans, who intirely raſed it, and ploughed up the very foundations. They are the ruins of the city which was built on the ſite of the former, and which was deſtroyed by the Saracens in the beginning of the ſeventh century.

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may be folded or unfolded at pleaſure. When entertainments are given, the company meets in the court, which is always kept very clean. The public exchange for merchants and their goods is commodious; but the inhabitants of Tunis are diſtreſſed for want of freſh water.

Moſt of the water uſed in this city is rain-water, preſerved in ciſterns, into which it is conveyed by pipes from the roofs of the houſes, which are all flat. Theſe ciſterns are ſo large, that they hold enough to ſerve the families five or ſix months. Almoſt every ciſtern has the baſe of a marble column hollowed out to cover the mouth; thouſands of them being put to this uſe all over the country.

Merſa, two ſhort miles from Carthage, and eleven from Tunis, is a very pleaſant ſituation. Here the bey has two country-houſes, one of which has been a coſtly work, built by Haſſan Bey, ſurnamed the Good. From theſe houſes are orange gardens, reaching almoſt to the ſea-ſhore; on the edge of which is a famous well of ſweet water, eſteemed the beſt and lighteſt in the kingdom; and cloſe to this a coffee-houſe. Numbers of people from the neighbouring places, reſort here to drink coffee, and a glaſs of this natural luxury, ſo peculiarly enjoyed in the eaſtern countries; few perſons, except thoſe who have lived in hot climates, knowing the bleſſing of a good ſpring.

In the middle of the court is a large mulberry-tree, under the ſhade of which they ſit and ſmoke, and play at cheſs, inhaling the comfortable ſea-breeze, that refreſhes this charming ſpot. Nothing can be more pictureſque, than to ſee the Moors gallantly mounted, with their attendants, complimenting one another.

The water is drawn up by a camel, with the Perſian wheel, and diſtributed to the neighbouring countries.

The city of Tripoli conſiſts of an old and new town, the latter being the moſt flouriſhing; but never can make any conſiderable figure, on account of the inconveniencies attending its ſituation, particularly the want of ſweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coaſt, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of conſiderable trade, and the object of many bloody diſputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Conſtantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the ſtrongeſt cities in Numidia, being inacceſſible on all ſides, except the ſouth-weſt.

Beſides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie ſcattered up and down this immenſe tract of country. The city of Fez, at preſent the capital of the kingdom ſo called, is ſaid to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, beſides merchants and foreigners. Its moſques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond deſcription, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is eſteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracy of its inhabitants. Tangier, ſituated about two miles within the ſtraits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, conſort of Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the Engliſh what Gibraltar is now; and it muſt have been a moſt noble acquiſition, had not the miſunderſtandings between the king and his parliament occaſioned him to blow up its fortifications and demoliſh its harbour; ſo that from being one of the fineſt cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fiſhing town. Ceuta, upon the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, beſieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes; but the inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign: nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious.

Zaara, is a deſert country, thinly peopled and nearly deſtitute of both water and proviſions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower ſubjects of theſe ſtates know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be ſupplied with neceſſary utenſils and manufactures; ſo that their exports conſiſt chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper, and ſofter than thoſe in Turkey, though not ſo good in other reſpects. As they leave almoſt all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them; the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen works, which ſupply the higher ranks of their own ſubjects. They have no ſhips that, properly ſpeaking, are employed in commerce; ſo that the French and Engliſh carry on the greateſt part of their trade. Their exports, beſides thoſe already mentioned, conſiſt of elephants' teeth, oſtrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, gum-arabic, and ſandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewiſe ſaid to carry on a conſiderable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and ſome inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vaſt numbers of negroes, who ſerve in their armies, and are ſlaves in their houſes and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furniſh them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities; the particulars of which are too many to ſpecify. The duties paid by the Engliſh in the ports of Morocco, are but half thoſe paid by other Europeans. It is a general obſervation, that no nation is fond of trading with theſe ſtates, not only on account of their capricious deſpotiſm, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are ſeldom puniſhed.

It has often been thought ſurpriſing, that the Chriſtian powers ſhould ſuffer their marine to be inſulted by thoſe barbarians, who take the ſhips of all nations with whom they are not at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a ſubſidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwiſe than by ſuppoſing, firſt, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount; ſecondly, that no Chriſtian power would be fond of ſeeing Algiers, and the reſt of that coaſt, in poſſeſſion of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would inſtantly carry their effects to their deſerts and mountains, ſo that the benefit, reſulting from the conqueſt, muſt be tedious and precarious.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be ſaid to exiſt. The emperors have for ſome ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the ſubmiſſion with which their ſubjects bear it. In the abſence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is ſeldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some veſtiges, however, of the califate government ſtill continue; for in places where no military officer reſides, the mufti or high-prieſt is the fountain of all juſtice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, act as our juſtices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately ſubject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand Signior to be his ſuperior, and he pays him a diſtant allegiance as the chief repreſentative of Mahomet. What I have ſaid of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkiſh paſha or dey, who governs in the name of the Grand Signior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious ſubjects to his authority. He cannot even be ſaid to be nominated by

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the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every ſoldier in the army has a vote in chooſing the ſucceeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodſhed, yet it is no ſooner fixed than he is cheerfully recogniſed and obeyed. It is true, he muſt be confirmed by the Porte; but that is ſeldom refuſed, as the divan is no ſtranger to the diſpoſitions of the people. The power of the dey is deſpotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly oppreſſing his ſubjects, who are very tenacious of their property. A detachment of the army of their ſtates is annually ſent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes taken at ſea, ſometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives. Theſe deys pay ſlight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand Signior is at war with a Chriſtian power, he requires their aſſiſtance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which conſiſts of thirty paſhas. Theſe paſhas ſeldom fail of forming parties, among the ſoldiers, againſt the reigning dey, whom they make no ſcruple of aſſaſſinating, even in council; and the ſtrongeſt candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is depoſed; ſometimes, though but very ſeldom, he reſigns his authority to ſave his life; and it is ſeldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unſucceſsful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, ſeldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned thoſe of Algiers, but they are now ſaid to be exceeded by Tunis. They conſiſt of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Chriſtians, a ſmall capitation tax, and the cuſtoms paid by the Engliſh, French, and other nations, who are ſuffered to trade with thoſe ſtates. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no ideas of his revenues, becauſe none of his ſubjects can be ſaid to poſſeſs any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ranſoms of Chriſtian ſlaves are his perquiſites. He ſometimes ſhares in the veſſels of the other ſtates, which entitles him to a part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan ſubjects, and ſix crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewiſe conſiderable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, eſpecially the ſlave-trade towards the ſouth. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND.] By the beſt accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the ſtrength of this army conſiſts of cavalry mounted by his negro ſlaves. Thoſe wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other ſtate but ſervitude, and no other maſter but their king, and prove the firmeſt ſupport of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco conſiſted only of three ſmall ſhips, which lay at Sallee, and, being full of men, ſometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, conſiſting of Turks, and cologlies, or the ſons of ſoldiers. Part of them ſerve as marines on board their veſſels. About 1000 of them do garriſon duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Beſides theſe, the dey can bring 2000 Mooriſh horſe into the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little truſted. Thoſe troops are under excellent diſcipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary ſtates keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; ſo that a few years ago they refuſed to ſend any tribute to the Turkiſh emperor, who ſeems to be ſatisfied with the ſhadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extenſive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that ſtate flouriſhed, the preſent inhabitants have ſcarcely any merchant-ſhips belonging to them, or indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increaſed ſince the laſt attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and ſmall, and ſome years ago did not exceed ſix ſhips from thirty-ſix to fifty guns. The admiral's ſhip belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but ſubject to military law. With ſuch a contemptible fleet, theſe infidels not only haraſs the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of preſents.

History.] There perhaps is no problem in hiſtory ſo unaccountable as the decline and fall of the ſplendor, power, and glory of the ſtates of Barbary; which, when Rome was miſtreſs of the world, formed the faireſt jewel in the imperial diadem. It was not till the ſeventh century that, after theſe ſtates had been by turns in poſſeſſion of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became maſters of almoſt all Spain, from whence their poſterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles ſettled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coaſt. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who preſſed them ſo hard, that they called to their aſſiſtance the two famous brothers Barbaroſſa, who were admirals of the Turkiſh fleet, and who, after breaking the Spaniſh yoke, impoſed upon the inhabitants of all thoſe ſtates (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unſucceſsful; and, as already obſerved, the inhabitants have in fact ſhaken off the Turkiſh yoke likewiſe.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the ſucceſſors of thoſe ſovereigns of that country who were all called xeriffs, and whoſe powers reſembled that of the califate of the Saracens. They have been in general a ſet of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them ſome able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almoſt a continual ſtate of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Chriſtian princes ever ſince: nor does the crown of Great-Britain ſometimes diſdain, as in the year 1769, to purchaſe their friendſhip with preſents.

ABYSSINIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 900 Breadth 800	between	6 and 20 north latitude 26 and 44 eaſt longitude.	378,000.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the eaſt, partly by the Red Sea, and partly by Dancala; on the weſt by Gorham; and on the ſouth by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the ſubſequent account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz. 1. Maſuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder,

der; 5. Amhara; 6. Walaka; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maitſha; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nara.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The rainy ſeaſon continues for ſix months of the year, from April to September, which is ſucceeded, without interval, by a cloudleſs ſky, and vertical ſun; and cold nights, which, as immediately follow theſe ſcorching days. The earth, notwithſtanding the heat of theſe days, is yet perpetually cold, ſo as to feel diſagreeably to the ſoles of the feet; partly owing to the ſix months rains, when no ſun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

DISEASES OF THE CLIMATE.] The whole coaſt of the Red Sea from Suez to Babelmandel, but more eſpecially between the tropics, is very unwholeſome. Violent fevers, called there *nedad*, make the principal figure in this fatal liſt, and generally terminate the third day in death. If the patient ſurvives till the fifth day, he very often recovers by drinking water only, and throwing a quantity of cold water upon him, even in his bed, where he is permitted to lie without attempting to make him dry, or change his bed, till another deluge adds to the firſt.

There is no remedy ſo ſovereign here as the bark; but it muſt be given in very different times and manners from thoſe purſued in Europe. Were a phyſician to take time to prepare his patient for the bark, by firſt giving him purgatives, he would be dead of the fever before his preparation was completed.

The next common diſeaſe in the low country of Arabia, the intermediate iſland of Maſuah, and all Abyſſinia, (for the diſeaſes are exactly ſimilar in all this tract) is the tertian fever, which is in nothing different from our tertian, and is ſucceſſfully treated here in the ſame manner as in Europe. As no ſpecies of this diſeaſe, at leaſt that I have ſeen, (ſays our author Mr. Bruce) menaces the patient with death, eſpecially in the beginning of the diſorder, ſome time may be allowed for preparation to thoſe who doubt the effect of bark.

There is a ſpecies of dyſentery here, which begins with a conſtant diarrhœa, when the inteſtines are at laſt excoriated, and the mucus voided by the ſtools. This diſeaſe is rarely cured, if it begins with the rainy ſeaſon. But if, on the contrary, it happen either in the ſunny ſix months, or the end of the rainy ones immediately next to them, ſmall doſes of ipecacuanha either carry it off, or it changes into an intermitting fever, which yields afterwards to the bark.

The next diſeaſe, which we may ſay is endemial, is called *hanzeer*, the *hogs* or the *ſwine*, and is a ſwelling of the glands of the throat, and under the arms. This the ignorant inhabitants endeavour to bring to a ſuppuration, but in vain; they then open them in ſeveral places; a ſore and running follows, and a diſeaſe very much reſembling what in Europe is called the evil.

The next (though not a dangerous complaint) has a very terrible appearance. Small tubercules or ſwellings appear all over the body, but thickeſt in the thighs, arms, and legs. Theſe ſwellings go and come for weeks together without pain; though the legs often ſwell to a monſtrous ſize, as in the dropſy. Sometimes the patients have ulcers in their noſes and mouths, not unlike thoſe which are one of the malignant conſequences of the venereal diſeaſe. The ſmall ſwellings or eruptions, when ſqueezed, very often yield blood; in other reſpects the patient is generally in good health, ſaving the pain the ulcers give him, and the ſtill greater uneaſineſs of mind which he ſuffers from the ſpoiling the ſmoothneſs of his ſkin; for all the nations in Africa within the tropics are wonderfully affected at the ſmalleſt eruption or roughneſs of the ſkin. A black of Sennaar will hide himſelf in the houſe where it is dark, and is not to be ſeen by his friends, if he ſhould have two or three pimples on any part of his body; nor is there any remedy, however violent, which they will not fly to for immediate relief. Scars and wounds are no blemiſhes; and for

three or four pimples on their bracelet arm, they will ſuffer the application of a red hot iron with great reſolution and conſtancy.

The next complaint I ſhall mention, as common in theſe countries, is called *farenteit*, a corruption of an Arabic word, which ſignifies the worm of Pharaoh; all bad things being by the Arabs attributed to theſe poor kings, who ſeem to be looked upon by poſterity as the evil genii of the country which they once governed.

This extraordinary animal only afflicts thoſe who are in conſtant habit of drinking ſtagnant water; and, far from affecting the fleſhy parts of the body, it generally comes out where the bone has leaſt fleſh upon it. Upon looking at this worm, on its firſt appearance, a ſmall black head is extremely viſible, with a hooked beak, of a whitiſh colour. Its body is ſeemingly of a white ſilky texture, very like a ſmall tendon, bared, and perfectly cleaned. After its appearance, the natives of theſe countries, who are uſed to it, ſeize it gently by the head, and wrap it round a ſmall piece of ſilk, or bird's feather. Every day, or ſeveral times a-day, they try to wind it up upon the quill as far as it comes readily; and, upon the ſmalleſt reſiſtance, they give over, for fear of breaking it. I have ſeen, (ſays Mr. Bruce) five feet or more of this extraordinary animal, winded out with invincible patience, in the courſe of three weeks. No inflammation then remained, and ſcarcely any redneſs round the edges of the aperture, only a ſmall quantity of lymph appeared in the hole or puncture, which ſcarcely iſſued out upon preſſing. In three days it was commonly well, and left no ſcar or dimple implying loſs of ſubſtance.

I myſelf (ſays our author) experienced this complaint. I was reading upon a ſofa at Cairo, a few days after my return from Upper Egypt, when I felt in the fore part of my leg, upon the bone, about ſeven inches below the center of my knee-pan, an itching reſembling what follows upon the bite of a muſcheto. Upon ſcratching, a ſmall tumour appeared, very much like a muſcheto bite. The itching returned in about an hour afterwards; and being more intent upon my reading than my leg, I ſcratched it till the blood came. I ſoon after obſerved ſomething like a black ſpot, which had already riſen conſiderably above the ſurface of the ſkin. All medicine proved uſeleſs; and the diſeaſe not being known at Cairo, there was nothing for it but to have recourſe to the only received method of treating it in this country. About three inches of the worm was winded out upon a piece of raw ſilk in the firſt week, without pain or fever; but it was broken afterwards through the careleſſneſs and raſhneſs of the ſurgeon, when changing a poultice on board the ſhip in which I returned to France: a violent inflammation followed; the leg ſwelled ſo as ſcarce to leave appearance of knee or ancle; the ſkin, red and diſtended, ſeemed glazed like a mirror. The wound was now healed, and diſcharged nothing; and there was every appearance of mortification coming on. The great care and attention procured me in the lazaretto at Marſeilles, by a nation always foremoſt in the acts of humanity to ſtrangers, and the attention and ſkill of the ſurgeon, recovered me from this troubleſome complaint.

The laſt I ſhall mention of theſe endemial diſeaſes, and the moſt terrible of all others that can fall to the lot of man, is the elephantiaſis, which ſome have choſen to call the leproſy, or Lepra Arabum; though in its appearance, and in all its appearances and ſtages, it no more reſembles the leproſy of Paleſtine, (which is, I apprehend, the only leproſy that we know) than it does the gout or the dropſy. I never ſaw the beginning of this diſeaſe. During the courſe of it, the face is often healthy to appearance; the eyes vivid and ſparkling: thoſe affected have ſometimes a kind of dryneſs upon the ſkin of their backs, which, upon ſcratching, I have ſeen leave a mealineſs, or whiteneſs; the only circumſtance, to the beſt of my recollection,

tion, in which it reſembled the leproſy, but it has no ſcalineſs. The hair, too, is of its natural colour; not white, yelloviſh, or thin, as in the leproſy.

The chief ſeat of this diſeaſe is from the bending of the knee downwards to the ancle; the leg is ſwelled to a great degree, becoming one ſize from bottom to top, and gathered into circular wrinkles, like ſmall hoops or plaits; between every one of which there is an opening that ſeparates it all round from the one above, and which is all raw fleſh, or perfectly excoriated. From between theſe circular diviſions a great quantity of lymph conſtantly oozes. The ſwelling of the leg reaches over the foot, ſo as to leave about an inch or little more of it ſeen. It ſhould ſeem that the black colour of the ſkin, the thickneſs of the leg, and its ſhapeleſs form, and the rough tubercles, or excreſcences, very like thoſe ſeen upon the elephant, give the name to this diſeaſe, and form a ſtriking reſemblance between the diſtempered legs of the unfortunate individual of the human ſpecies, and thoſe of the noble quadruped the elephant, when in full vigour.

RULES OF HEALTH.] It will be very reaſonably expected, (ſays our ingenious traveller) that after this unfavourable account of the climate, and the uncertainty of remedies for theſe frequent and terrible diſeaſes, I ſhould ſay ſomething of the regimen proper to be obſerved there, in order to prevent what it ſeems doubtful whether we can ever cure: and as theſe rules apply to other warm climates, beſides Abyſſinia, we the more readily inſert them.

My firſt general advice to a traveller is this, to remember well what was the ſtate of his conſtitution before he viſited theſe countries, and what his complaints were, if he had any; for fear very frequently ſeizes us upon the firſt ſight of the many and ſudden deaths we ſee upon our firſt arrival, and our ſpirits are ſo lowered by perpetual perſpiration, and our nerves ſo relaxed, that we are apt to miſtake the ordinary ſymptoms of a diſeaſe, familiar to us in our own country, for the approach of one of theſe terrible diſtempers, that are to hurry us in a few hours into eternity. This has a bad effect in the very ſlighteſt diſorders; ſo that it hath become almoſt proverbial---"If you think you ſhall die, you will die".

If a traveller finds that he is as well after having been ſome time in this country as he was before entering it, his beſt way is to make no innovation in his regimen, further than in abating ſomething in the quantity. But if he is of a tender conſtitution, he cannot act more wiſely than to follow implicitly the regimen of ſober, healthy people of the country, without arguing upon European notions, or ſubſtituting what we conſider as ſuccedaneums to what we ſee uſed on the ſpot. *All ſpirits* are to be avoided; even bark is better in water than in wine. The ſtomach, being relaxed by profuſe perſpiration, needs ſomething to ſtrengthen, but not inflame, and enable it to perform digeſtion. For this reaſon (inſtinct we ſhould call it, if ſpeaking of beaſts) the natives of all eaſtern countries ſeaſon every ſpecies of food, even the ſimpleſt, and mildeſt, rice, ſo much with ſpices, eſpecially pepper, as abſolutely to bliſter a European palate.

Theſe powerful antiſeptics Providence has planted in theſe countries for this uſe; and the natives have, from the earlieſt times, had recourſe to them in proportion to the quantity they can procure. And hence, in theſe dangerous climates, the natives are as healthy as we are in our northern ones. Travellers in Arabia are diſguſted at this ſeemingly inflammatory food; and nothing is more common than to hear them ſay that they are afraid theſe quantities of ſpices will give them a fever. But did they ever feel themſelves heated by ever ſo great a quantity of black pepper? Spirits, they think, ſubſtituted to this, anſwer the ſame purpoſe. But does not the heat of your ſkin, the violent pain in your head, while the ſpirits are filtering through the

veſſels of your brains, ſhew the difference? And when did any ever feel a like ſenſation from black pepper, or any pepper eaten to exceſs in every meal?

I lay down then, as a poſitive rule of health that the warmeſt diſhes the natives delight in, are the moſt wholeſome ſtrangers can uſe in the putrid climates of the Lower Arabia, Abyſſinia, Sennaar, and Egypt itſelf; and that ſpirits, and all fermented liquors, ſhould be regarded as poiſons, and for fear of temptation, not ſo much as be carried along with you, unleſs as a menſtruum for outward applications.

Spring, or running water, if you can find it, is to be your only drink. You cannot be too nice, in procuring this article. But, as on both coaſts of the Red Sea you ſcarcely find any but ſtagnant water, the beſt way of obtaining wholeſome water is this: Take a quantity of fine ſand; waſh it from the ſalt quality with which it is impregnated; and ſpread it upon a ſheet to dry. Then nearly fill an oil-jar with water, and pour into it as much from a boiling kettle as would ſerve to kill all the animalcula and eggs that are in it. Then ſift the dried ſand, as ſlowly as poſſible, upon the ſurface of the water in the jar, till the ſand ſtand half a foot in the bottom of it. After letting it ſettle a night, draw it off by a hole in the jar with a ſpigot in it, about an inch above the ſand; then throw the remaining ſand out upon the cloth, and dry and waſh it again.

This proceſs is ſooner performed than deſcribed. The water is as limpid as the pureſt ſpring, and little inferior to the fineſt Spa. Drink largely of this without fear; according as your appetite requires. By violent perſpiration the aqueous part of your blood is thrown off; and it is not ſpirituous liquor can reſtore this, whatever ſtrength it may give you from another cauſe. When hot, and almoſt fainting with weakneſs from continual perſpiration, I have gone into a warm bath, and been immediately reſtored to ſtrength, as upon firſt riſing in the morning. Some perhaps will object, that this heat would have weakened and overpowered you; but the fact is otherwiſe; and the reaſon is, the quantity of water, taken up by your abſorbing veſſels, reſtores to your blood that finer fluid which was thrown off, and then the uneaſineſs occaſioned by that want ceaſes, for it is the want of that, we call uneaſineſs.

In Nubia never ſcruple to throw yourſelf into the coldeſt river or ſpring you can find, in whatever degree of heat you are. The reaſon of the difference in Europe is, that when by violence you have raiſed yourſelf to an extraordinary degree of heat, the cold water in which you plunge yourſelf checks your perſpiration, and ſhuts your pores ſuddenly. The medium is itſelf too cold, and you do not uſe force ſufficient to bring back the perſpiration, which nought but action occaſioned; whereas, in theſe warm countries, your perſpiration is natural and conſtant, though no action be uſed, only from the temperature of the medium; therefore, though your pores are ſhut the moment you plunge yourſelf in the cold water, the ſimple condition of the outward air again covers you with pearls of ſweat the moment you emerge; and you begin the expence of the aqueous part of your blood afreſh from the new ſtock that you have laid in by your immerſion.

For this reaſon, if you are well, deluge yourſelf from head to foot, even in the houſe, where water is plenty, by directing a ſervant to throw buckets upon you at leaſt once a-day when you are hotteſt; not from any imagination that the water braces you, as it is called, for your bracing will laſt you only a very few minutes; but theſe copious inundations will carry watery particles into your blood, though not equal to bathing in running ſtreams, where the total immerſion, the motion of the water, and the action of the limbs, all conſpire to the benefit you are in queſt of. As to cold water bracing in thoſe climates, I am perſuaded it is an idea not founded in truth. By obſervation it has appeared often to me, that when heated by

by violent exerciſe, I have been much more relieved, and my ſtrength more completely reſtored by the uſe of a tepid bath, than by an equal time paſſed in a cold one.

Do not fatigue yourſelf if poſſible. Exerciſe is not either ſo neceſſary, or ſalutary here as in Europe. Uſe fruits ſparingly, eſpecially if too ripe. The muſa, or banana, in Arabia Felix, are always rotten ripe when they are brought to you. Avoid all ſort of fruit expoſed for ſale in the markets, as it has probably been gathered in the ſun, and carried miles in it, and all its juices are in a ſtate of fermentation.

Rice and pillaw are the beſt food; fowls are very bad, eggs are worſe; greens are not wholeſome. In Arabia the mutton is good, and, when roaſted, may be eaten warm with ſafety; perhaps better if cold. All ſoups or broths are to be avoided; all game is bad.

QUADRUPEDS.] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number, or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyſſinia. As the high country is now perfectly cleared of wood, by the waſte made in that article from the continual march of armies, the mountains are covered to the very top, with perpetual verdure, and moſt luxuriant herbage.

The long rains in ſummer are not ſuddenly abſorbed by the rays of the ſun: a thick veil defends the ground when it is in the zenith, or near it, affording heat to promote vegetation, without withering it by deſtroying the moiſture, and by this means a never-failing ſtore of provender is conſtantly provided for all ſorts of cattle. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance preſent themſelves every where, differing in ſize, ſome having horns of various dimenſions, ſome without horns at all; differing alſo in the colour and length of their hair.

The reader may with confidence aſſure himſelf, that there are no ſuch animals as carnivorous bulls in Africa, as has been aſſerted in the Philoſophical Tranſactions; and, though we may ſay of the buffalo that it is of this kind, yet we cannot call it a tame animal here; ſo far from that, that it is the moſt ferocious in the country where he reſides.

But what is very particular, the female buffalo is the only animal kept for giving milk in Egypt. And though apparently theſe are of the ſame ſpecies, and came originally from Ethiopia, their manners are ſo intirely changed by their migration, difference of climate or of food, that without the exertion of any art to tame them, they are milked, conducted to and fro, and governed by children of ten years old, without apprehenſion, or any unlucky accident having ever happened.—Of horſes alſo there is a ſufficient quantity in this part of the continent of Africa.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel or antelope kind; the bohur, ſaſſa, feeho, and madequa, and many others. Hyænas are ſtill more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of theſe the moſt numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is preciſely the ſame in all reſpects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, ſmaller and ſmoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing elſe, is met frequently in ſwamps or banks of rivers covered with wood. As he is accounted unclean in Abyſſinia, both by Chriſtians and Mahometans, conſequently not perſecuted by the hunter, both he and the fox ſhould have multiplied; but it is probable they, and many other beaſts, when young, are deſtroyed by the voracious hyæna.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or faadh, which is the panther, ſeen in the high and cultivated country. There are no tigers in Abyſſinia, nor, as far as I know, in Africa; it is an Aſiatic animal. Innumerable flocks of apes, and baboons

boons of different kinds, deſtroy the fields of millet every where; theſe, and an immenſe number of common rats, make great deſtruction in the country and harveſt. I never ſaw a rabbit in Abyſſinia, but there is plenty of hares; this is an animal which they reckon unclean; and not being hunted for food, it ſhould ſeem they ought to have increaſed to greater numbers. It is probable, however, that the great quantity of eagles, vultures, and beaſts of prey, has kept them within reaſonable bounds. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyſſinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the aſs kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; theſe are the inhabitants of Fazuclo, and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its mercileſs ferocity. They were a plague, ſays our author, ſpeaking of theſe animals, in Abyſſinia in every ſituation, both in the city and in the field, and I think ſurpaſſed the ſheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark till the dawn of day, ſeeking the different pieces of ſlaughtered carcaſes which this cruel and unclean people expoſe in the ſtreets without burial. Many a time in the night, when the king had kept me late in the palace, and it was not my duty to lie there, in going acroſs the ſquare from the king's houſe, not many hundred yards diſtant, I have been apprehenſive they would bite me in the leg. They grunted in great numbers about me, though I was ſurrounded with ſeveral armed men, who ſeldom paſſed a night without wounding or ſlaughtering ſome of them.

One night in Maitſha, being very intent on obſervation, I heard ſomething paſs behind me towards the bed, but upon looking round could perceive nothing. Having finiſhed what I was about, I went out of my tent, reſolving directly to return, which I immediately did, when I perceived large blue eyes glaring at me in the dark. I called upon my ſervant with a light, and there was the hyæna ſtanding nigh the head of the bed, with two or three large bunches of candles in his mouth. To have fired at him I was in danger of breaking my quadrant, or other furniture, and he ſeemed, by keeping the candles ſteadily in his mouth, to wiſh for no other prey at that time. As his mouth was full, and he had no claws to tear with, I was not afraid of him, but with a pike ſtruck him as near the heart as I could judge. It was not till then he ſhewed any ſign of fierceneſs; but upon feeling his wound, he let drop the candles, and endeavoured to run up the ſhaft of the ſpear to arrive at me, ſo that, in ſelf-defence, I was obliged to draw out a piſtol from my girdle and ſhoot him, and nearly at the ſame time my ſervant cleft his ſkull with a battle-ax. In a word, the hyæna was the plague of our lives, the terror of our night-walks, the deſtruction of our mules and aſſes, which above all others are his favourite food. Thoſe of the largeſt ſize are five feet nine inches in length, meaſuring from the noſe to the anus.

It is a conſtant obſervation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by ſome accident they have been brought to engage, and the beaſt has prevailed againſt him; then that feeling of ſuperiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preſervation ſeems to forſake him. The lion, having once taſted human blood, relinquiſhes the purſuit after the flock. He repairs to ſome highway or frequented path, and has been known in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for ſeveral weeks; and in this he perſiſts till hunters or ſoldiers are ſent out to deſtroy him.

The ſame, but in a much greater extent, happens in Atbara. The Arabs, who reſide in this diſtrict, live in encampments in different parts of the country, their ancient patrimony or conqueſt. Here they plow and ſow, dig wells, and have plenty of water; the ground produces large crops, and all is proſperity ſo long as there is peace. Inſolence and preſumption follow eaſe and riches. A quarrel happens with

with a neighbouring clan, and the firſt act of hoſtility, or deciſive advantage, is the one burning the others' crop at the time it is near being reaped. Inevitable famine follows. They are provided with no ſtores, no ſtock in hand, their houſes are burnt, their wells filled up, the men ſlain by their enemies, and many thouſands of the helpleſs remainder left perfectly deſtitute of neceſſaries; and that very ſpot, once a ſcene of plenty, in a few day is reduced to an abſolute deſert. Moſt of the miſerable ſurvivors die before they can reach the next water; they have no ſubſiſtence by the way; they wander among the acacia trees, and gather gum. There, every day loſing their ſtrength, and deſtitute of all hope, they fall ſpontaneouſly, as it were, into the jaws of the mercileſs hyæna; who, finding ſo very little difference or difficulty between ſlaying the living, and devouring the dead, follows the miſerable remains of this unfortunate multitude, till he has extirpated the laſt individual of them. Thence it comes that we find it obſervable in the deſert, that the whole country is ſtrewed with bones of the dead; horrid monuments of the victories of this ſavage animal, and of man more ſavage and cruel than he. From the eaſe with which he overcomes theſe half-ſtarved and unarmed people, ariſes the calm, ſteady confidence in which he ſurpaſſes all the reſt of his kind.

He is extremely fond of the fleſh of mules or aſſes; but there is another paſſion for which he is ſtill more remarkable, that is, his liking of dog's fleſh, or, as it is commonly expreſſed, his averſion to dogs. No dog, however fierce, will touch him in the field. Greyhounds, that were accuſtomed to faſten upon the wild boar, would not engage with him. This animoſity between him and dogs, though it has eſcaped modern naturaliſts, appears to have been known to the ancients in the eaſt. In Eccleſiaſticus (chap. xiii. ver. 18.) it is ſaid, "What agreement is there between the hyæna, and the dog?" a ſufficient proof that the antipathy was ſo well known as to be proverbial.

HUNTING THE ELEPHANT, RHINOCEROS, &c.] The hunting of theſe animals being one of the amuſements of the natives, we ſhall give the reader an account of this dangerous ſport, in the words of Mr. Bruce.

On the 6th of January, 1772, an hour before day, after a hearty breakfaſt, we mounted on horſeback, to the number of about thirty. But there was another body, both of horſe and foot, which made hunting the elephant their particular buſineſs. Theſe men dwell conſtantly in the woods, and know very little the uſe of bread, living entirely upon the fleſh of the beaſts they kill, chiefly that of the elephant or rhinoceros. They are exceedingly thin, light, and agile, both on horſeback and foot; are very ſwarthy, though few of them black; none of them woolly-headed, and all of them have European features. They are called Agageer, a name of their profeſſion, not of their nation, which comes from the word Agar, and ſignifies to hough or ham-ſtring with a ſharp weapon. More properly it means, indeed, the cutting the tendon of the heel, and is a characteriſtic of the manner in which they kill the elephant, which is ſhortly as follows: two men, abſolutely naked, without any rag or covering at all about them, get on horſeback; this precaution is from fear of being laid hold of by the trees or buſhes, in making their eſcape from a very watchful enemy. One of theſe riders ſits upon the back of the horſe, ſometimes with a ſaddle, and ſometimes without one, with only a ſwitch or ſhort ſtick in one hand, carefully managing the bridle with the other; behind him ſits his companion, who has no other arms but a broad-ſword, ſuch as is uſed by the Sclavonians, and which is brought from Trieſte.

As ſoon as the elephant is found feeding, the horſeman rides before him as near his face as poſſible; or, if he flies, croſſes him in all directions, crying out, "I am ſuch a man and ſuch a man; this is my horſe, that has ſuch a name; I killed your father in ſuch a place, and your grandfather in ſuch another place, and I am now come to kill you; you are but an aſs in compariſon of them." This nonſenſe he verily

verily believes the elephant underſtands, who, chafed and angry at hearing the noiſe immediately before him, ſeeks to ſeize him with his trunk or proboſcis, and intent upon this, follows the horſe every where, turning, and turning round with him, neglectful of making his eſcape by running ſtraight forward, in which conſiſts his only ſafety. After having made him turn once or twice in purſuit of the horſe, the horſeman rides cloſe up along-ſide of him, and drops his companion juſt behind on the off ſide; and while he engages the elephant's attention upon the horſe, the footman behind gives him a drawn ſtroke juſt above the heel, or what in man is called the tendon of Achilles. This is the critical moment; the horſeman immediately wheels round, and takes his companion up behind him, and rides off full ſpeed after the reſt of the herd, if they have ſtarted more than one; and ſometimes an expert agageer will kill three out of one herd. If the ſword is good, and the man not afraid, the tendon is commonly intirely ſeparated; and if it is not cut through, it is generally ſo far divided, that the animal, with the ſtreſs he puts upon it, breaks the remaining part aſunder. In either caſe he remains incapable of advancing a ſtep, till the horſeman returning, or his companions coming up, pierce him through with javelins and lances; he then falls to the ground, and expires with the loſs of blood.

My agageer, however, having wounded the firſt elephant, failed in the purſuit of the ſecond, and, being cloſe upon him at entering the wood, he received a violent blow from a branch of a tree, which the elephant had bent by his weight, and, after paſſing, allowed it to replace itſelf, when it knocked down both the riders, and very much hurt the horſe. This, indeed, is the great danger in elephant-hunting; for ſome of the trees, that are dry and ſhort, break by the violent preſſure of ſo immenſe a body moving ſo rapidly, and fall upon the purſuers, or acroſs the roads. But the greateſt number of theſe trees, being of a ſucculent quality, they bend without breaking, and return quickly to their former poſition, when they ſtrike both horſe and man ſo violently, that they often beat them to pieces, and ſcatter them upon the plain. Dextrous, too, as the riders are, the elephant ſometimes reaches them with his trunk, with which he daſhes the horſe againſt the ground, and then ſets his feet upon him, till he tears him limb from limb with his proboſcis; a great many hunters die this way.

The elephant once ſlain, they cut the whole fleſh off his bones into thongs, like the reins of a bridle, and hang theſe, like feſtoons, upon the branches of trees, till they become perfectly dry, without ſalt, and they then lay them by for their proviſion in the ſeaſon of the rains.

The next morning we were on horſeback by the dawn of day in ſearch of the rhinoceros, many of which we had heard make a very deep groan and cry as the morning approached; ſeveral of the agageers then joined us, and after we had ſearched about an hour in the thickeſt part of the wood, one of them ruſhed out with great violence, croſſing the plain towards a wood of canes that was about two miles diſtance. But though he ran, or rather trotted, with ſurprizing ſpeed, conſidering his bulk, he was, in a very little time, transfixed with thirty or forty javelins, which ſo confounded him, that he left his purpoſe of going to the wood, and ran into a deep hole, ditch, or ravine, a *cul de ſac*, without outlet, breaking about a dozen of the javelins as he entered. Here we thought he was caught as in a trap, for he had ſcarce room to turn; when a ſervant, who had a gun, ſtanding directly over him, fired at his head, and the animal fell immediately, to all appearance, dead. All thoſe on foot now jumped in with their knives to cut him up, and they had ſcarce begun, when the animal recovered ſo far as to riſe upon his knees; happy then was the man that eſcaped firſt; and had not one of the agageers, who was himſelf

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in the ravine, cut the ſinew of the hind-leg as he was retreating, there would have been a very ſorrowful account of the foot-hunters that day.

After having diſpatched him, I was curious to ſee what wound the ſhot had given, which had operated ſo violently upon ſo huge an animal; and I doubted not it was in the brain. But it had ſtruck him no where but upon the point of the foremoſt horn, of which it had carried off above an inch; and this occaſioned a concuſſion which had ſtunned him for a minute, till the bleeding had recovered him.

We had not gone far before a wild boar aroſe, which I immediately killed with my javelin; and another of its companions ſhared the ſame fate about a quarter of an hour after. Nobody would touch the carcaſe of the boar after it was dead, being an animal which is conſidered as unclean.

Birds.] The number of birds in Abyſſinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally ſtored with them, the firſt kind are the carnivorous birds. Many ſpecies of the eagle and hawk, many more ſtill of the vulture kind, as it were overſtock all parts of the country. That ſpecies of glede, called Haddaya, ſo frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the ſun, after the tropical rains. The quantity of ſhell-fiſh which then covers the edges of the deſert, and leaves the ſalt ſprings where they have been nouriſhed, ſurprized by the heat, and deſerted by the moiſture, are the firſt food theſe birds find in their way. They then are ſupplied by the carcaſes of thoſe large beaſts, the elephant, rhinoceros, and giraffa, the whole tribe of the deer kind, and the wild aſſes that are ſlain by the hunters, part of which only are uſed for food.

The vaſt quantity of field-rats and mice that appear after harveſt, and ſwarm in the cracks, or fiſſures in the ground, are their next ſupply. But above all, the great ſlaughter made of cattle upon the march of the army, the beaſts of burden which die under carriage and ill treatment, the number of men that periſh by diſeaſe and by the ſword, whoſe carcaſes are never buried by this barbarous and unclean people, compoſe ſuch a quantity and variety of carrion, that it brings together at one time a multitude of birds of prey, it would ſeem there was not ſuch a number on the whole earth. Theſe follow the camp, and abide by it; indeed, they ſeem another camp round it, for, beſides thoſe that ventured among the tents, the fields on every ſide, as far as the eyes could reach, are covered with them, and the branches of the trees ready to break under the preſſure of their weight.

The Niſſer, or golden eagle, is not only the largeſt of the eagle-kind, but ſurely one of the largeſt birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, Rachamah, Erkoom, Moroc, Sheregrig, and Waalia, are particularly deſcribed by the hiſtorian of Abyſſinia, to whoſe celebrated work we refer the reader who is deſirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyſſinia, eſpecially of the web-footed kind. Vaſt variety of ſtorks cover the plains in May, when the rains become conſtant. All the deep and graſſy bogs have ſnipes in them; and ſwallows there are of many kinds unknown in Europe; thoſe that are common in Europe appear in paſſage at the very ſeaſon when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyſſinia; but theſe are of an immenſe ſize and beauty. There are no geeſe, wild or tame, excepting what is called the golden gooſe, gooſe of the Nile, or gooſe of the cape, common in all the ſouth of Africa: theſe build their neſt upon trees, and when not in water, generally ſit upon them.

Insects.] From the claſs of inſects, we ſhall ſelect the moſt remarkable, viz. the Tſaltſalya or fly, which is an inſect that furniſhes a ſtriking proof how falla-

cious it is to judge by appearances. If we conſider its ſmall ſize, its weakneſs, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or inſignificant. Yet paſſing from theſe to his hiſtory, and to the account of his powers, we muſt confeſs the very great injuſtice we do him from want of conſideration. We are obliged with the greateſt ſurprize to acknowledge, that thoſe huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and the tiger, inhabiting the ſame wood, are ſtill vaſtly his inferious, and that the appearance of this ſmall inſect, nay, his very ſound, though he is not ſeen, occaſions more trepidation, movement, and diſorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of theſe monſtrous animals collected together, though their number was in a tenfold proportion greater than it really is.

This inſect has not been deſcribed by any naturaliſt. It is in ſize very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion, and his wings, which are broader than thoſe of a bee, placed ſeparate like thoſe of a fly; they are of pure gauze, without colour or ſpot upon them; the head is large, the upper jaw or lip is ſharp, and has at the end of it a ſtrong-pointed hair of about a quarter of an inch long; the lower jaw has two of theſe pointed hairs, and this pencil of hairs, when joined together, makes a reſiſtance to the finger nearly equal to that of a ſtrong hog's briſtle. Its legs are ſerrated in the inſide, and the whole covered with brown hair or down. As ſoon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forſake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and haſten down to the ſands of Atbara, and there they remain while the rains laſt; this cruel enemy never daring to purſue them farther.

Though the ſize of the camel is immenſe, his ſtrength vaſt, and his body, covered with a thick ſkin, defended with ſtrong hair, yet ſtill he is not capable to ſuſtain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboſcis. He muſt loſe no time in removing to the ſands of Atbara; for when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large boſſes, which ſwell, break, and putrify to the certain deſtruction of the creature.

Even the elepant and rhinoceros, who by reaſon of their enormous bulk, and the vaſt quantity of food and water they daily need, cannot ſhift to deſert and dry places as the ſeaſon may require, are obliged to roll themſelves in mud and mire, which, when dry, coats them over like armour, and enables them to ſtand their ground againſt this winged aſſaſſin: and yet upon almoſt every elephant and rhinoceros may be ſeen theſe tubercles, which may moſt probably be attributed to this enemy.

All the inhabitants of the ſea-coaſt of Melinda, down to Cape Gardefan, to Saba, and the ſouth coaſt of the Red Sea, are obliged to put themſelves in motion, and remove to the next ſand in the beginning of the rainy ſeaſon, to prevent all their ſtock of cattle from being deſtroyed. This is not a partial emigration; the inhabitants of all the countries from the mountains of Abyſſinia northward, to the confluence of the Nile and Aſtaboras, are once a-year obliged to change their abode, and ſeek protection in the ſands of Beja; nor is there any alternative, or means, of avoiding this, though a hoſtile band was in their way capable of ſpoiling them of half their ſubſtance.

Of all thoſe that have written upon theſe countries, the prophet Iſaiah alone has given an account of this animal, and the manner of its operation. *Iſa.* vii. 18, 19. "And it ſhall come to paſs, in that day, that the Lord ſhall *hiſs* for the fly that "is in the uttermoſt parts of the rivers of Egypt;"—"And they ſhall come, and "ſhall

"ſhall reſt all of them in the deſolate vallies *, and in the holes of the rocks, and upon all thorns, and upon all buſhes."

Providence, from the beginning it would ſeem, had fixed its habitation to one ſpecies of ſoil, being a black fat earth, extraordinarily fruitful; and ſmall and inconſiderable as it was, it ſeems from the firſt to have given a law to the ſettlement of the country. It prohibited abſolutely thoſe inhabitants of the fat earth, called Mazaga, domiciled in caves and mountains, from enjoying the help or labour of any beaſts of carriage. It deprived them of their fleſh and milk for food, and gave riſe to another nation whoſe manners were juſt the reverſe of the firſt. Theſe were the ſhepherds, leading a wandering life, and preſerving theſe immenſe herds of cattle by conducting them into the ſands beyond the limits of the black earth, and bringing them back again when the danger from this inſect was over.

We cannot read, ſays Mr. Bruce, to whom all lovers of ſacred literature are indebted for his very happy elucidations of ſcripture, and for his manly and judicious defences of revelation in ſeveral places throughout his narrative; we cannot read the hiſtory of the plagues which God brought upon Pharaoh by the hands of Moſes, without ſtopping a moment to conſider a ſingularity, a very principal one, which attended this plague of the fly. It was not till this time and by means of this inſect, that God ſaid, he would ſeparate his people from the Egyptians. And it would ſeem that then a law was given to them, which fixed the limits of their habitation. It is well known that the land of Goſhen, or Geſhen, the poſſeſſion of the Iſraelites, was a land of paſture, which was not tilled or ſown, becauſe it was not overflowed by the Nile. But the land overflowed by the Nile was the black earth of the valley of Egypt, and it was here that God confined the flies; for he ſays, it ſhall be a ſign of this ſeparation of the people, which he had then made, that not one fly ſhould be ſeen in the ſand or paſture ground, the land of Goſhen, and this kind of ſoil has ever ſince been the refuge of all cattle emigrating from the black earth to the lower part of Atbara. Iſaiah, indeed, ſays, that the fly ſhall be in all the deſert places, and conſequently the ſands; yet this was a particular diſpenſation of providence to anſwer a ſpecial end, the deſolation of Egypt, and was not a repeal of the general law, but a confirmation of it; it was an exception, for a particular purpoſe and a limited time.

The Chaldee verſion is content with calling this animal ſimply Zebub, which ſignifies the fly in general, as we expreſs it in Engliſh. The Arabs call it Zimb in their tranſlation, which has the ſame general ſignification. The Ethiopic verſion calls it Tſaltſalya, which is the true name of this particular fly in Geez, and was the ſame in Hebrew.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is alſo found in Abyſſinia. It never grows in the bed of a river, but generally in ſome ſmall ſtream that iſſued out of, or into ſome large ſtagnant lake or water-courſe. It does not even truſt itſelf to the weight of the wave of the deepeſt part of the lake when agitated by the wind; but it grows generally about the borders of it, as far as the depth of the water is within a yard. The reader will find a more circumſtantial deſcription of this plant in the preceding account of the curioſities of Egypt. *Baleſſan*, *Balm*, or *Balſam* is alſo a native of Abyſſinia. The great value ſet upon this drug in the eaſt remounts to very early ages. We know from ſcripture, the oldeſt hiſtory ex-

* That is, they ſhall cut off from the cattle their uſual retreat to the deſert, by taking poſſeſſion of thoſe places, and meeting them there, where ordinarily they never come, and which therefore are the refuge of the cattle.

tant, as well as the moſt infallible, that the Iſhmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking with the India commodities into Egypt, brought with them balm as part of the cargo. Joſephus *, in the hiſtory of the antiquities of his country, ſays that a tree of this balſam was brought to Jeruſalem by the queen of Sheba (the queen of Abyſſinia), and given, among other preſents to Solomon, who, as we know from ſcripture, was very ſtudious of all ſorts of plants, and ſkilful in the deſcription and diſtinction of them. Notwithſtanding this poſitive authority of Joſephus, we are not to put it in competition with that of ſcripture, from which we know the place where it grew, and was ſold to merchants, was Gilead in Judæa, more than 1780 years before Chriſt, or 1000 before the queen of Sheba; ſo that reading the verſe, nothing can be more plain than that it had been tranſplanted into Judæa, flouriſhed, and had become an article of commerce in Gilead, long before the period Joſephus mentions: "And they ſat down to eat bread, and they liſted up their "eyes and looked, and behold a company of Iſhmaelites came from Gilead, with "their camels, bearing ſpicery, and balm, and myrrh, going to carry it down into "Egypt †." At this time it probably acquired its name of Balm of Gilead.—The *Enſete* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar, but it moſt abounds in that part of Maitſha and Goutto weſt of the Nile where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almoſt excluſive of every thing elſe, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When ſoft, like a turnip well boiled, if eat with milk or butter, it is the beſt of all food, wholeſome, nouriſhing, and eaſily digeſted. The *Teff* is a grain commonly ſown all over Abyſſinia, where it ſeems to thrive equally on all ſorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly uſed throghout Abyſſinia. The Abyſſinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and ſome of it of an excellent quality. They likewiſe make as fine wheat-bread as any in the world, both for colour and taſte; but the uſe of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the firſt rank. On the other hand Teff is uſed by all ſorts of people from the king downwards, and there are kinds of it which are eſteemed fully as much as wheat. The beſt of theſe is as white as flour, exceedingly light and eaſily digeſted. There are others of a browner colour, and ſome nearly black; this laſt is the food of ſoldiers and ſervants. The cauſe of this variation ariſes from the ſoil on which it grows, and from the degree of fineneſs with which it is ſifted. The acacia tree is very common in Abyſſinia, as are ſeveral other curious productions of the vegetable world, many of which are deſcribed in the Appendix of our author, and illuſtrated by many elegant engravings, which will afford a very great entertaintment to the curious botaniſt.

Lakes.] The lake of Tzana (not to mention thoſe of Gooderoo, and Court Ohha) is by much the largeſt expanſe of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greateſt breadth is thirty-five miles, and its extent in length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always viſible, croſſes the end of it. In dry the months from October to March, the lake ſhrinks greatly in ſize: but after that all thoſe rivers are full which are on every ſide of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a center, then it ſwells, and extends itſelf into the plain country, and has of courſe a much larger ſurface.

There are forty-five inhabited iſlands in the lake, if you believe the Abyſſinians, who, in every thing, are very great liars. The number may perhaps be about eleven. All theſe iſlands were formerly uſed as priſons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat, on account of ſome diguſt or great misfortune, or as places of ſecurity to depoſit their valuable effects during troubleſome times.

* Joſeph. Antiq. lib. v. † Gen. xxxvii. 25.

Cataracts

CATARACTS OF THE NILE.] Omitting thoſe of inferior note, we ſhall here give the reader ſome account of the great cataract of Alata. The firſt thing our traveller was ſhewn was the bridge, which conſiſts of an arch of about twenty-five feet broad, the extremities of which were ſtrongly let into, and reſted on the ſolid rock on both ſides; but fragments of the parapets remained, and the bridge itſelf ſeemed to bear the appearance of frequent repairs, and many attempts to ruin it; otherwiſe, in its conſtruction, it was exceedingly commodious. The Nile here is confined between two rocks, and runs in a deep trough, with great roaring and impetuous velocity. They were told no crocodiles were ever ſeen ſo high, and were obliged to remount the ſtream above half a mile before they came to the cataract, through trees and buſhes of a beautiful and delightful appearance.

The cataract itſelf was the moſt magnificent ſight that Mr. Bruce ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The miſſionaries ſay the fall is about ſixteen ells, or fifty feet. The meaſuring is, indeed, very difficult; but, by the poſition of long ſticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock, from the water's edge, Mr. Bruce thinks he may venture to ſay that it is nearer forty feet than any other meaſure. The river had been conſiderably encreaſed by rains, and fell in one ſheet of water, without any interval, above half an Engliſh mile in breadth, with a force and noiſe that was truly terrible, and which ſtunned, and made him, for a time, perfectly dizzy. A thick fume, or haze, covered the fall all round, and hung over the courſe of the ſtream both above and below, marking its tract, though the water was not ſeen. The river, though ſwelled with rain, preſerved its natural clearneſs, and fell, as far as he could diſcern, into a deep pool, or baſon, in the ſolid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice, the ſtream, when it fell, ſeeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its courſe, raiſing a wave, or violent ebullition, by chaffing againſt each other.

Jerome Lobo pretends, that he has ſat under the curve, or arch, made by the projectile force of the water ruſhing over the precipice. He ſays he ſat calmly at the foot of it, and looking through the curve of the ſtream, as it was falling, ſaw a number of rainbows of inconceivable beauty in this extraordinary priſm. This, however, Mr. Bruce, without heſitation, avers to be a downright falſehood. A deep pool of water reaches to the very foot of the rock, and is in perpetual agitation. Now, allowing that there was a ſeat or bench, which there is not, in the middle of the pool, it is abſolutely impoſſible, by any exertion of human ſtrength, to have arrived at it. Although a very robuſt man, in the prime and vigour of life, and a hardy, practiſed, indefatigable ſwimmer, Mr. Bruce is perfectly confident he could not have got to that ſeat from the ſhore through the quieteſt part of that baſon. And, ſuppoſing the friar placed in his imaginary ſeat under the curve of that immenſe arch of water, he muſt have had a portion of firmneſs, more than falls to the ſhare of ordinary men, and which is not likely to be acquired in a monaſtic life, to philoſophiſe upon optics in ſuch a ſituation, where every thing would ſeem to his dazzled eyes to be in motion, and the ſtream, in a noiſe like the loudeſt thunder, to make the ſolid rock (at leaſt as to ſenſe) ſhake to its very foundation, and threaten to tear every nerve to pieces, and to deprive one of other ſenſes beſides that of hearing. It was a moſt magnificent ſight, that ages, added to the greateſt length of human life, would not deface or eradicate from Mr. Bruce's memory; it ſtruck him with a kind of ſtupor, and a total oblivion of where he was, and of every other ſublunary concern. It was one of the moſt magnificent, ſtupendous ſights in the creation.

Sources of the Nile.] To diſcover theſe having been the great object of all Mr. Bruce's travels, the hopes of which having animated him through toils and dangers innumerable, it will not be eaſy to conceive the mingled emotions which muſt have ariſen in his mind, when he ſtood in rapture over the principal fountain. Let him, however, ſpeak for himſelf. "It is eaſier to gueſs than to deſcribe the ſituation of my mind at that moment—ſtanding in that ſpot which had baffled the genius, induſtry, and inquiry of both ancients and moderns, for the courſe of near three thouſand years. Kings had attempted this diſcovery at the head of armies, and each expedition was diſtinguiſhed from the laſt, only by the difference of the numbers which had periſhed, and agreed alone in the diſappointment which had uniformly, and without exception followed them all. Fame, riches, and honour, had been held out for a ſeries of ages to every individual of thoſe myriads theſe princes commanded, without having produced one man capable of gratifying the curioſity of his ſovereign, or wiping off this ſtain upon the enterpriſe and abilities of mankind, or adding this deſideratum for the encouragement of geography. Though a mere private Briton, I triumphed here, in my own mind, over kings and their armies; and every compariſon was leading nearer and nearer to preſumption, when the place itſelf where I ſtood, the object of my vain-glory, ſuggeſted what depreſſed my ſhort-lived triumphs. I was but a few minutes arrived at the ſources of the Nile, through numberleſs dangers and ſufferings, the leaſt of which would have overwhelmed me but for the continued goodneſs and protection of providence; I was, however, but then half through my journey, and all thoſe dangers which I had already paſſed, awaited me again on my return.

I ſaw Strates expecting me on the ſide of the hill: "Strates, ſaid I, faithful ſquire, come and triumph with your Don Quixote at that iſland of Barataria, where we have wiſely and fortunately brought ourſelves; come and triumph with me over all the kings of the earth, all their armies, all their philoſophers, and all their heroes."--"Sir", ſays Strates, "I do not underſtand a word of what you ſay, and as little of what you mean: you very well know I am no ſcholar; but you had much better leave that bog, and come into the houſe."-- "Come, ſaid I, take a draught of this excellent water, and drink with me a health to his majeſty, George III. and a long line of princes." I had in my hand a large cup of a cocoa-nut ſhell, which I procured in Arabia, and which was brim-full. He drank to the king ſpeedily and chearfully, with the addition of "Confuſion to his enemies," and toſſed up his cap with a loud huzza. "Now friend, ſaid, I, here is to a more humble, but ſtill a ſacred name, here is to---Maria!" He aſked if that was the Virgin Mary? I anſwered, "In faith, I believe ſo, Strates." He did not ſpeak, but only gave a humph of diſapprobation.

The day had been very hot, ſo that my thirſt led me to theſe frequent libations at this long-ſought-for ſpring, the moſt ancient of all altars. "Strates, ſaid I, here is to our happy return. Come, friend, you are yet two toaſts behind me; can you ever be ſatiated with this excellent water?" "Look you, ſir, ſays he very gravely, as for king George I drank to him with all my heart, to his wife, to his children, to his brothers and ſiſters, God bleſs them all! amen;—but as for the Virgin Mary, as I am no papiſt, I beg to be excuſed from drinking healths, which *my church* does not drink. But you muſt forgive me if I refuſe to drink any more water. They ſay theſe ſavages pray over that hole every morning to the devil, and I am afraid I feel his horns in my belly already, from the great draught of that helliſh water I drank firſt."

Mr. Bruce now proceeds to deſcribe the ſources of the Nile, which have, as he ſays, remained to our days as unknown as they were to antiquity; no good or genuine voucher having yet been produced capable of proving that they were before diſcovered,

diſcovered, or ſeen by the curious eye of any traveller, from the earlieſt ages to this day; and it is with confidence Mr. Bruce propoſes to his reader, that he will conſider him as ſtill ſtanding at theſe fountains, and patiently hear from him the recital of the origin, courſe, names, and circumſtances of this the moſt famous river in the world, which he will in vain ſeek from books, or from any other human authority whatever, and which by the care and attention he has paid to the ſubject, will, he hopes, be found ſatisfactory.

The Agows of Damot pay divine honour to the Nile; they worſhip the river, and thouſands of cattle have been offered, and ſtill are offered, to the ſpirit ſuppoſed to reſide at its ſource. The village of Geeſh, though not farther diſtant than 600 yards, is not in ſight of the ſources of the Nile. In the middle of a marſh, near the bottom of the mountain of Geeſh, ariſes a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the ſurface of the marſh itſelf, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is ſomething ſhort of twelve feet, it is ſurrounded by a ſhallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eaſtward; it is firmly built with ſod or earthern turf, brought from the ſides, and conſtantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviouſly made, or at leaſt enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of graſs, or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly pure and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind diſcernable upon its ſurface. This mouth, or opening of the ſource, is ſome parts of an inch leſs than three feet diameter, and the water ſtood about two inches from the lip or brim. This ſpring is about ſix feet ſix inches deep.

Ten feet diſtant from the firſt of theſe ſprings, a little to the weſt of ſouth, is the ſecond fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep. And about twenty feet diſtant from the firſt is the third ſource, its mouth being ſomething more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep.

Mr. Bruce being extremely anxious to aſcertain the preciſe ſpot on the globe that this fountain had ſo long occupied unknown, verified the inſtrument with all poſſible care, both at the zenith and horizon. With a braſs quadrant of three feet radius, by one meridian altitude of the ſun's upper limb, all neceſſary equations and deductions conſidered, he determined the latitude of the place of obſervation to to be 10° 59′ 11″ in north latitude; and by another obſervation of the ſame kind 10° 59′ 8″, after which, by a medium of thirty-three obſervations of ſtars, the largeſt and neareſt, the firſt vertical, he found the latitude to be 10° 59′ 25′ in round numbers, for the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile, though the Jeſuits have ſuppoſed it 12° N. by a random gueſs. The longitude he aſcertained to be 36° 55′ 30″ eaſt of the meridian of Greenwich.

CAUSE OF THE INUNDATIONS OF THE NILE. It is an obſervation that holds good through all the works of Providence, that although God, in the beginning, gave an inſtance of his Almighty power by creating the world with one ſingle *fiat*, yet, in the laws he has laid down for the maintaining order and regularity in the details of his creation, he has invariably produced all theſe effects by the leaſt degree of power poſſible, and by thoſe means that ſeem moſt obvions to human conception. But it ſeemed, however, not according to the tenor of his ways and wiſdom, to create a country like Egypt, without ſprings, or even dews, and ſubject it to a nearly vertical ſun, that he might ſave it by ſo extraordinary an intervention as was the annual inundation, and make it the moſt fertile ſpot of the univerſe.

Whatever were the conjectures of the dreamers of antiquity, modern travellers and philoſophers, deſcribing without prejudice or ſyſtem what their eyes ſaw, have found that the inundation of Egypt has been effected by natural means, perfectly

conſonant

conſonant with the ordinary rules of Providence, and the laws given for the government of the reſt of the univerſe. They have found that the plentiful fall of the tropical rains produced every year at the ſame time by the action of a violent ſun, has been uniformly, without miracle, the cauſe of Egypt being regularly overflowed.

The ſun being nearly ſtationary for ſome days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes ſo much rarified, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, ruſh in upon it from the Atlantic on the weſt, and from the Indian Ocean on the eaſt. The ſouth wind, moreover, loaded with heavy vapour, condenſed in that high ridge of mountains not far ſouth of the line, which forms a ſpine to the peninſula of Africa, and, running northward with the other two, furniſh wherewithal to reſtore the equilibrium.

The ſun, having thus gathered ſuch a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progreſs northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, ſeemed to have extended its power to the atmoſphere of Gondar, when, for the firſt time, there appeared in the ſky white, dappled, thin clouds, the ſun being then diſtant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark ſpeck having been ſeen for ſeveral months before. Advancing to the line with increaſed velocity, and deſcribing larger ſpirals, the ſun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the firſt of March, being then diſtant 5° from the zenith; theſe are greedily abſorbed by the thirſty ſoil, and this ſeems to be the fartheſt extent of the ſun's influence, capable of cauſing rain, which then only falls in large drops, but laſts but a few minutes: the rainy ſeaſon, however, begins moſt ſeriouſly upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and theſe rains continue conſtant and increaſing after he has paſſed it, in his progreſs northward. Before this, green boughs and leaves appear floating in the Bahar el Abiad, and ſhew that, in the latitude where it riſes, the rains are already abundant. The Galla, who inhabit, or have paſſed that river, give account of its ſituation, which lies about 5° from the Line.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Laſta, firſt diſcoloured, and and then beginning to ſwell, join the Nile in the ſeveral parts of its courſe neareſt them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itſelf through the ſtagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of ſtreams pour themſelves from Gojam, Damot, Maitſha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intenſe evaporation, but now begins to fill inſenſibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the ſun, having now paſſed all Abyſſinia, the rivers there are all full, and then is the time of the greateſt rains in Abyſſinia, while it is for ſome days, as it were ſtationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the ſun has paſſed the line, he begins the rainy ſeaſon to the ſouthward, ſtill as he approaches the zenith of each place; but the ſituation and neceſſities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains run from about 6° ſouth all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and interſects the ſouthern part of the peninſula, nearly in the ſame manner that the river Nile does the northern. A ſtrong wind from the ſouth, ſtopping the progreſs of the condenſed vapours, daſhes them againſt the cold ſummits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers which eſcape in the direction either eaſt or weſt, as the level preſents itſelf. If this is towards the weſt, they fall down the ſides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the eaſt, into the Indian Ocean.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyſſinia, is ſituated upon a hill of conſiderable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It conſiſts of about ten thouſand families in time of peace; the houſes are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the conſtruction within the tropical rains. On the weſt end of the town is the king's houſe, formerly a ſtructure of conſiderable conſequence. It was a ſquare building, flanked with ſquare towers. It was formerly four ſtories high, and, from the top of it, had a magnificent view of all the country ſouthward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this houſe is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is ſtill ample lodging in the two loweſt floors of it, the audience chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are ſurrounded by a ſubſtantial ſtone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the ſtreet. There appears to have been never any embraſures for cannon, and the four ſides of the wall are above an Engliſh mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of obſervations of the ſun and ſtars, made by day and night, in the courſe of three years, with an aſtronomical quadrant of three feet radius, and two excellent teleſcopes, and by a mean of all their ſmall differences, is in N. lat. 12° 34′ 30″; and by many obſervations of the ſatellites of Jupiter, eſpecially the firſt, both in their immerſions and emerſions during that period, I concluded its longitude to be 37° 33′ 0″ eaſt from the meridian of Greenwich.

DIXAN is the firſt town in Abyſſinia, on the ſide of Taranta. Dixan is built on the top of a hill, perfectly in form of a ſugar loaf; a deep valley ſurrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds ſpirally up the hill till it ends among the houſes. It is true of Dixan, as of moſt frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries reſort thither. The town conſiſts of Moors and Chriſtians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of theſe ſects is a very extraordinary one, that of ſelling children. The Chriſtians bring ſuch as they have ſtolen in Abyſſinia to Dixan as to a ſure depoſit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Maſuah, whence they are ſent over to Arabia, or India. The prieſts of the province of Tigre, eſpecially thoſe near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. 14° 57′ 55″ north, and long. 40° 7′ 30″ eaſt of the meridian of Greenwich.

AXUM is ſuppoſed to have been once the capital of Abyſſinia, and its ruins are now every extenſive; but, like the cities of ancient times, conſiſt altogether of public buildings. In one ſquare, which ſeems to have been the center of the town, there are forty obeliſks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is ſtanding, there is a *patera* exceedingly well carved in the Greek taſte. Axum is watered by a ſmall ſtream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley, where ſtand the rows of obeliſks. The ſpring is received into a magnificent baſon of 150 feet ſquare, and thence it is carried at pleaſure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are theſe very excellent. The latitude of this town is 14° 6′ 36″ north.

MASUAH. The houſes of this town, which is ſituated upon an iſland bearing the ſame name, on the Abyſſinian ſhore of the Red Sea, are, in general, built of poles and bent graſs, as in the towns of Arabia; but beſides theſe, there are about twenty of ſtone, ſix or eight of which are two ſtories each. N. lat. 15° 35′ 5″ E. long. 39° 36′ 30″.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] There is a conſiderable deal of trade carried on at Maſuah, narrow and confined as the iſland is, and violent and unjuſt as is the government. But it is all done in a ſlovenly manner, and for articles where a ſmall capital is inveſted. Property here is too precarious to riſk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every tranſaction.

Gondar and all the neighbouring country depend for the neceſſaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of ſuch articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the ſources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where ſixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. Theſe Agows come conſtantly in ſucceſſion, a thouſand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with theſe commodities, to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, ſuch as that of a hundred miles, in ſuch a climate, butter muſt melt, and be in a ſtate of fuſion, conſequently very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in ſhape nearly reſembling a carrot; this they bruiſe and mix with their butter, and a very ſmall quantity preſerves it freſh for a conſiderable time.

VARIOUS CUSTOMS.] We meet in Abyſſinia with various uſages, and ſhall firſt take notice of thoſe that regard the king and court, in which we find a remarkable reſemblance between the cuſtoms in the court of ancient Perſia, and thoſe in that of Abyſſinia.

The kings of Perſia, like thoſe of Abyſſinia, were eligible in one family only, that of the Arſacidæ, and it was not till that race failed, they choſe Darius. The title of the king of Abyſſinia is, *King* of *Kings*; and ſuch Daniel tells us was that of Nebuchadnezzar. The right of primogeniture does not ſo prevail in Abyſſinia as to exclude election in the perſon of the younger brothers, and this was likewiſe the caſe in Perſia.

In Perſia a preference was ſuppoſed to be due to the king's lawful children; but there were inſtances of the natural child being preferred to the lawful one. Darius, though a baſtard, was preferred to Iſogius, Xerxes' lawful ſon, and that merely by the election of the people. The ſame has always obtained in Abyſſinia. A very great part of their kings are adulterous baſtards; others are the iſſue of concubines, but they have been preferred to the crown, by the influence of a party always under name of the voice of the people.

Though the Perſian kings had various palaces to which they removed at different times of the year, Paſagarda, the metropolis of their ancient kings, was obſerved as the only place for their coronation*; and this, too, was the caſe of Abyſſinia, with their metropolis of Axum.

The next remarkable ceremony in which theſe two nations agreed, is that of adoration, inviolably obſerved in Abyſſinia to this day, as often as you enter the ſovereign's preſence. This is not only kneeling *, but an abſolute proſtration. You firſt fall upon your knees, then upon the palms of your hands, then incline your head and body till your forehead touch the earth; and in caſe you have an anſwer to expect, you lie in that poſture till the king, or ſomebody from him, deſires you to riſe. This, too, was the cuſtom of Perſia. Arrian † ſays this was firſt inſtituted by Cyrus, and this was preciſely the poſture in which they adored God, mentioned in the book of Exodus.

* Lucretius, lib. v. Ovid. Metam. lib. i. Lucian, in Navig. † Arrian, lib. iv. cap. 11. Exod. chap. iv. Matth. chap. ii.

We

We will now compare ſome particulars in the dreſs and ornaments of the two kings. The king of Abyſſinia wears his hair long, ſo did the ancient kings of Perſia. A comet had appeared in the war with Perſia, and was looked upon by the Romans as a bad omen. Veſpaſian laughed at it, and ſaid, if it portended any ill it was to the king of Perſia, becauſe, *like him*, it wore long hair.—The diadem was, with the Perſians, a mark of royalty, as with the Abyſſinians, being compoſed of the ſame materials, and worn in the ſame manner. The king of Abyſſinia wears it, while marching, as a mark of ſovereignty, that does not impede, or incommode him, as any other heavier ornament would do, eſpecially in hot weather. This fillet ſurrounds his head, above the hair, leaving the crown perfectly uncovered. This was the diadem of the Perſians, as appears from Lucian, who calls it a white fillet about the forehead.

It is in Abyſſinia, high-treaſon to ſit on any ſeat of the king's; and he that preſumed to do this would be inſtantly hewn to pieces, if there was not ſome other collateral proof of his being a madman.

It is probable that Alexander had heard of this law in Perſia, and diſapproved of it; for one day, it being extremely cold, the king, ſitting in his chair before the fire, warming his legs, ſaw a ſoldier, probably a Perſian, who had loſt his feeling by extreme numbneſs. The king immediately leaped from his chair, and ordered the ſoldier to be ſet down upon it. The fire ſoon brought him to his ſenſes, but he had almoſt loſt them again with fear, by finding himſelf in the king's ſeat. To whom Alexander ſaid, "Remember, and diſtinguiſh, how much more advantageous to man my government is than that of the kings of Perſia. By ſitting down on my ſeat, you have ſaved your life; by ſitting on theirs, you would infallibly have loſt it."

The kings of Abyſſinia are above all laws. They are ſupreme in all cauſes eccleſiaſtical and civil: the land and perſons of their ſubjects are equally their property, and every inhabitant of their kingdom is born their ſlave; if he bears a higher rank, it is by the king's gift; for his neareſt relations are accounted nothing better.

There are ſeveral kinds of bread in Abyſſinia, ſome of different ſorts of teff, and ſome of tocuſſo, which alſo vary in quality. The king of Abyſſinia eats of wheat bread, though not of every wheat, but of that only that grows in the province of Dembea, therefore called the king's food. It always has been and ſtill is the cuſtom of the kings of Abyſſinia to marry what number of wives they chooſe, that theſe were not, therefore, all queens; but that among them there was one who was conſidered particularly as queen, and upon her head was placed the crown, and ſhe was called Iteghè. Thus, in Perſia, we read that Ahaſuerus loved Eſther, who had found grace in his ſight more than the other virgins, and he had placed a golden crown upon her head.

The king of Abyſſinia never is ſeen to walk, nor to ſet his foot on the ground out of his palace; and when he would diſmount from the horſe or mule on which he rides, he has a ſervant with a ſtool, who places it properly for him for that purpoſe. He rides into the anti-chamber to the foot of the throne, or to the ſtool placed in the alcove of his tent. He very often judges capital crimes himſelf. No man is condemned by the king in perſon to die for the firſt fault, unleſs the crime be of a horrid nature, ſuch as parricide, or ſacrilege. And, in general, the life and merits of the priſoner are weighed againſt his immediate guilt; ſo that if his firſt behaviour has had more merit towards the ſtate than his preſent delinquency is thought to have injured it, the one is placed fairly againſt the other, and the accuſed is generally abſolved when the ſovereign judges alone.

The capital puniſhments in Abyſſinia are the croſs, flaying alive, and lapidation, or ſtoning to death. To theſe we may add the plucking out of the eyes, a cruelty too often committed. This is generally inflicted upon rebels. The dead bodies of criminals ſlain for treaſon, murder, and violence, are ſeldom buried in Abyſſinia. The ſtreets of Gondar are ſtrewed with pieces of their carcaſes, which bring the wild beaſts in multitudes into the city as ſoon as it becomes dark, ſo that it is ſcarcely ſafe for any one to walk in the night. The dogs uſed to bring pieces of human bodies into the houſe, and court-yard, to eat them in greater ſecurity. From this ſhort ſketch of their manners, the reader will be fully convinced of the rude and barbarous ſtate of this people, in which he would be more confirmed from the deſcription of an Abyſſinian banquet, which decency will hardly permit us to inſert, but which the curious reader may find in the work itſelf *.

METHOD OF COMPUTING TIME.] The Abyſſinians, like the ancient Egyptians, their firſt colony, in computing their time, have continued the uſe of the ſolar year. Diodorus Siculus ſays, "they do not reckon their time by the moon, but according to the ſun; that thirty days conſtitute their month, to which they add five days, and the fourth part of a day; and this completes their year."

It is uncertain whence they derive the names of their months; they have no ſignification in any of the languages of Abyſſinia. The name of the firſt month among the old Egyptians has continued to this day. It is Tot, probably ſo called from the firſt diviſion of time among the Egyptians, from obſervation of the heliacal riſing of the dog-ſtar. The names of the months retained in Abyſſinia, are poſſibly, in antiquity, prior to this. They are probably thoſe given them by the Cuſhite before the Kalendars at Thebes and Meroë, their colony, were formed.

The Abyſſinians have another way of deſcribing time peculiar to themſelves; they read the whole of the four evangeliſts every year in their churches. They begin with Matthew, then proceed to Mark, Luke and John in order; and when they ſpeak of an event, they write and ſay it happened in the days of Matthew, that is in the firſt quarter of the year, while the goſpel of St. Matthew was yet reading in the churches.

They compute the time of the day in a very arbitrary, irregular manner. The twilight is very ſhort, almoſt imperceptible. As ſoon as the ſun falls below the horizon, night comes on, and all the ſtars appear. This term, then, the twilight, they chooſe for the beginning of their day, and call it Naggé, which is the very time the twilight of the morning laſts. The ſame is obſerved at night, and Meſet is meant to ſignify the inſtant of beginning of the twilight, between the ſun's falling below the horizon, and the ſtar's appearing. Mid-day is by them called *Kater*, a very old word, which ſignifies *culmination*, or a thing's being arrived or placed at the middle or higheſt part of an arch. All the reſt of times, in converſation, they deſcribe by pointing at the place in the heavens where the ſun then was, when what they are deſcribing happened.

Nothing can be more inaccurate than all Abyſſinian calculations. Their abſolute ignorance in arithmetic, their exceſſive idleneſs, and averſion to ſtudy, and a number of fanciful, whimſical combinations, by which every particular ſcribe or monk diſtinguiſhes himſelf, are inſuperable obſtacles againſt any ſcientific acquiſitions.

RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us from the annals of Abyſſinia, that in the time of Solomon, all this country was converted to Judaiſm, and the government of the church and ſtate modelled according to what was then in uſe at Jeruſalem.

* Bruce's Travels, to diſcover the Source of the Nile, 4to. vol. iii. p. 301.

Some

Some eccleſiaſtical writers, rather from attachment to particular ſyſtems, than from any conviction that the opinion they eſpouſe is truth, would perſuade us that the converſion of Abyſſinia to Chriſtianity happened in the days of the Apoſtles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apoſtle of the Abyſſinians) in the year of Chriſt 333, according to our account, of which converſion, the following narartive may not be unacceptable.

Meropius, a philoſopher of Tyre, a Greek by nation and by religion, had taken a paſſage in a ſhip on the Red Sea to India, and had with him two young men Frumentius, and Œdeſius, whom he intended to bring up to trade, after having given them a very liberal education. It happened their veſſel was caſt away on a rock upon the coaſt of Abyſſinia; Meropius, defending himſelf, was ſlain by the natives, and the two boys carried to Axum, the capital of Abyſſinia, where the court then reſided. Though young, they ſoon began to ſhew the advantages attending a liberal education. They acquired the language very ſpeedily; and, as that country is naturally inclined to admire ſtrangers, theſe were ſoon looked upon as two prodigies. Œdeſius, probably the dulleſt of the two, was ſet over the king's houſehold and wardrobe, a place that has been filled conſtantly by a ſtranger of that nation to this very day. Frumentius was judged worthy by the queen to have the care of the young prince's education, to which he dedicated himſelf intirely.

After having inſtructed his pupil in all ſorts of learning, he ſtrongly impreſſed him with a love and veneration for the Chriſtian religion; after which he himſelf ſet out for Alexandria, where he found St. Athanaſius, newly elected to that ſee.

He related to him briefly what had paſſed in Ethiopia, and the great hopes of the converſion of that nation, if proper paſtors were ſent to inſtruct them. Athanaſius embraced that opportunity with all the earneſtneſs that became his ſtation and profeſſion. He ordained Frumentius biſhop of that country, who inſtantly returned and found the young king his pupil in the ſame good diſpoſition as formerly. He embraced Chriſtianity; the greateſt part of Abyſſinia followed his example, and the church of Ethiopia continued with this biſhop in perfect unity and friendſhip till his death. It ſhould ſeem that this converſion of Abyſſinia was quietly conducted, and without blood.

There is no country in the world where there are ſo many churches as in Abyſſinia. Though the country is very mountainous, and conſequently the view much obſtructed, it is very ſeldom you ſee leſs than five or ſix churches, and, if you are on a commanding ground, five times that number. Every great man that dies thinks he has atoned for all his wickedneſs if he leaves a fund to build a church, or has built one in his life-time. The king builds many. Wherever a victory is gained, there a church is erected in the very field, ſtinking with the putrid bodies of the ſlain. Formerly this was only the caſe when the enemy was Pagan or Infidel; now the ſame is obſerved when the victories are over Chriſtians.

The ſituation of a church is always choſen near running water, for the convenience of their purifications, and ablutions, in which they obſerve ſtrictly the Levitical law. The churches are all round, with thatched roofs; their ſummits are perfect cones; the outſide is ſurrounded by a number of wooden pillars, which are nothing elſe than the trunks of the cedar-tree, and are placed to ſupport the edifice, about eight feet of the roof projecting beyond the wall of the church, which forms an agreeable walk, or colonade, around it in hot weather, or in rain. The inſide of the church is in ſeveral diviſions, according as is preſcribed by the law of Moſes. The firſt is a circle ſomewhat wider than the inner one; here the congregation ſit and pray. Within this is a ſquare, and that ſquare is divided by a veil or curtain, in which is another very ſmall diviſion anſwering to the holy of holies.

This

This is ſo narrow that none but the prieſts can go into it. You are bare-footed whenever you enter the church, and, if bare-footed, you may go through every part of it, if you have any ſuch curioſity, provided you are pure, *i. e.* have not been concerned with women for twenty-four hours before, or touched carrion or dead bodies; (a curious aſſemblage of ideas) for in that caſe you are not to go within the precincts, or outer circumference of the church, but ſtand and ſay your prayers at an awful diſtance among the cedars.

All perſons of both ſexes, under Jewiſh diſqualifications, are obliged to obſerve this diſtance; and this is always a place belonging to the church, where, unleſs in Lent, you ſee the greateſt part of the congregation; but this is left to your own conſcience, and, if there was either great inconvenience in the one ſituation, or great ſatisfaction in the other, the caſe would be otherwiſe.

When you go to the church you put off your ſhoes before your firſt entering the outer precinct; but you muſt leave a ſervant there with them, or elſe they will be ſtolen, if good for any thing, by the prieſts and monks before you come out of the church. At entry you kiſs the threſhold, and two door-poſts, go in and ſay what prayer you pleaſe; that finiſhed, you come out again, and your duty is over. The churches are full of pictures, painted on parchment, and nailed upon the walls, in a manner little leſs ſlovenly than you ſee paltry prints in beggarly country ale-houſes. There has been always a ſort of painting known among the ſcribes, a daubing much inferior to the worſt of our ſign-painters. Sometimes, for a particular church, they get a number of pictures of ſaints, on ſkins of parchment, ready finiſhed from Cairo, in a ſtile very little ſuperior to theſe performances of their own. They are placed like a frize, and hung in the upper part of the wall. St. George is generally there with his dragon, and St. Demetrius fighting a lion. There is no choice in their ſaints, they are both of the Old and New Teſtament, and thoſe that might be diſpenſed with from both. There is St. Pontius Pilate and his wife, there is St. Balaam and his aſs; Sampſon and his jaw-bone; and ſo of the reſt. But the thing that ſurpriſed Mr. Bruce moſt was a kind of ſquare-miniature upon the front of the head-piece, or mitre, of the prieſt, adminiſtering the ſacrament at Adowa, repreſenting Pharaoh on a white horſe, plunging in the Red Sea, with many guns and piſtols ſwimming upon the ſurface of it around him.

Nothing emboſſed, nor in relief, ever appears in any of their churches; all this would be reckoned idolatry, ſo much ſo, that they do not wear a croſs, as had been repreſented, on the top of the ball of the ſendick, or ſtandard, becauſe it caſts a ſhade; but there is no doubt that pictures have been uſed in their churches from the very earlieſt ages of Chriſtianity.

Their firſt biſhop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and inſtructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanaſius, then ſitting in the chair of St. Mark, it follows that the true religion of the Abyſſinians, which they received on their converſion to Chriſtianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy ſacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruiſed with the huſk together as it grows, ſo that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat ſpoon. They obſerve alſo circumciſion.

History.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the hiſtory of ſo barbarous and unciviliſed a people will, we preſume, afford but ſmall amuſement to our readers, whatever ſatisfaction they may have received from ſurveying the manners and cuſtoms of the people, and the natural hiſtory of the country, we ſhall therefore make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyſſinia, but refer thoſe, who have any deſire

of information upon this ſubject to the ſecond volume of the travels of our adventurous author, where he will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

FEZZAN, BORNOU, AND CASHNA.

IT having been long a ſubject of lamentation that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the *interior diſtricts* of Africa, we are happy to find that a number of learned and opulent individuals have formed themſelves into a ſociety for the purpoſe of exploring them. The aſſociation was formed on the ninth of June, in the year 1788; and on the ſame day a committee of its members, viz. *lord Rawdon, the biſhop of Landaff, ſir Joſeph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy*, and *Mr. Stuart*, were inveſted with the direction of its funds, the management of its correſpondence, and the choice of the perſons to whom the geographical miſſion was to be aſſigned. Perſuaded of the importance of the object which the Aſſociation had in view, their committee loſt no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected reſearches, they were choſen. One was a *Mr. Ledyard*; the other a *Mr. Lucas*. Mr. Ledyard's hiſtory which pointed him out to the ſociety as a proper perſon for undertaking the African adventure, is too curious and amuſing to be omitted; and as it is ſo cloſely connected with this part of our work, it is preſumed that it will not be thought foreign to the deſign of it.

Mr. Ledyard was an American by birth, and ſeemed from his youth to have felt an invincible deſire to make himſelf acquainted with the unknown or imperfectly diſcovered regions of the globe. For ſeveral years he had lived with the Indians of America, had ſtudied their manners, and had practiſed in their ſchool the means of obtaining the protection, and of recommending himſelf to the favour of ſavages. In the humble ſituation of a corporal of marines, to which he ſubmitted, rather than relinquiſh his purſuit, he had made, with captain Cook, the voyage of the world; and feeling on his return an anxious deſire of penetrating from the north-weſtern coaſt of America, which Cook had partly explored, to the eaſtern coaſt, with which he himſelf was perfectly familiar, he determined to traverſe the vaſt continent from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean.

His firſt plan for the purpoſe was that of embarking in a veſſel, which was then preparing to ſail, on a voyage of commercial adventure to Nootka Sound, on the weſtern coaſt of America; and with this view he expended in ſea-ſtores the greateſt part of the money which his chief benefactor, ſir Joſeph Banks (whoſe generous conduct the writer of this narrative has often heard him acknowledge) had liberally ſupplied. But the ſcheme being fruſtrated by the rapacity of a cuſtom-houſe officer, who had ſeized and detained the veſſel, for reaſons, which, on legal enquiry, proved to be frivolous, he determined to travel over land to Kamtſchatka, from whence, to the weſtern coaſt of America, the paſſage is extremely ſhort. With no more than ten guineas in his purſe, which was all that he had left, he croſſed the Britiſh Channel to Oſtend, and, by the way of Denmark and the Sound, proceeded to the capital of Sweden, from which, as it was winter, he attempted to traverſe the gulf of Bothnia on the ice, in order to reach Kamtſchatka by the ſhorteſt way; but finding, when he came to the middle of the ſea, that the water was not frozen, he returned to Stockholm, and taking his courſe northward, walked into the arctic circle; and paſſing round the head of the gulph, deſcended on its eaſtern ſide to Peterſburgh.

There

There he was noticed as an extraordinary man. Without ſtockings, or ſhoes, and in too much poverty to provide himſelf with either, he received and accepted an invitation to dine with the Portuguese ambaſſador. To this invitation it was probably owing that he was able to obtain the ſum of twenty guineas for a bill on ſir Joſeph Banks, which he confeſſed he had no authority to draw, but which, in conſideration of the buſineſs that he had undertaken, and of the progreſs that he had made, ſir Joſeph, he believed, would not be unwilling to pay. To the ambaſſador's intereſt it might alſo be owing that he obtained permiſſion to accompany a detachment of ſtores which the empreſs had ordered to be ſent to Yakutz, for the uſe of Mr. Billings an Engliſhman, at that time in her ſervice.

Thus accommodated, he travelled eaſtward through Siberia ſix thouſand miles, to Yakutz, where he was kindly received by Mr. Billings, whom he remembered on board captain Cook's ſhip, in the ſituation of the aſtronomer's ſervant, but to whom the empreſs had now entruſted her ſchemes of northern diſcovery.

From Yakutz he proceded to Oczakow, on the coaſt of the Kamtſchatka ſea, from whence he meant to have paſſed over to that peninſula, and to have embarked on the eaſtern ſide in one of the Ruſſian veſſels that trade to the weſtern ſhores of America; but finding that the navigation was completely obſtructed by the ice, he returned again to Yakutz, in order to wait for the concluſion of the winter.

Such was his ſituation, when, in conſequence of ſuſpicions not hitherto explained, or reſentments for which no reaſon is aſſigned, he was ſeized, in the empreſs's name, by two Ruſſian ſoldiers, who placed him in a ſledge, and conveying him in the depth of winter, through the deſerts of the Northern Tartary, left him at laſt on the frontiers of the Poliſh dominions.

As they parted, they told him, that if he returned to Ruſſia, he would certainly be hanged; but that, if he choſe to go back to England, they wiſhed him a pleaſant journey.

In the midſt of poverty, covered with rags, infeſted with the uſual accompaniments of ſuch cloathing, worn with continued hardſhip, exhauſted by diſeaſe, without friends, without credit, unknown and full of miſery, he found his way to Koningſberg.—There, in the hour of his uttermoſt diſtreſs, he reſolved once more to have recourſe to his old benefactor, and luckily he found a perſon who was willing to take his draft for five guineas, on the preſident of the Royal Society.

With this aſſiſtance he arrived in England, and immeditely waited on ſir Joſeph Banks, who told him, knowing his temper, that he believed he could recommend him to an adventure almoſt as perilous as the one from which he had returned; and communicated to him the wiſhes of the aſſociation for diſcovering the inland countries of Africa.

Ledyard replied, that he had always determined to traverſe the continent of Africa, as ſoon as he had explored the interior of North America; and as ſir Joſeph had offered him a letter of introduction, he came directly to the writer of theſe memoirs *. Before I had learnt from the note, the name and buſineſs of my viſitor, I was ſtruck with the manlineſs of his perſon, the breadth of his cheſt, the openneſs of his countenance, and the inquietude of his eye. I ſpread the map of Africa before him, and tracing a line from Cairo to Sennar, and from thence weſtward, in the latitude and ſuppoſed direction of the Niger, I told him that was the route by which I was anxious that Africa might, if poſſible, be explored. He ſaid, he ſhould think himſelf ſingularly fortunate to be entruſted with the adventure. I aſked him, when he would ſet out? "To morrow morning" was his anſwer. I

* Mr. Beaufoy.

told him I was afraid that we ſhould not be able, in ſo ſhort a time, to prepare his inſtructions, and procure for him the letters what were requiſite; but that if the committee ſhould approve of his propoſal, all expedition ſhould be uſed.

Such a perſon as Mr. Ledyard was formed by nature for the object in contemplation; and, were we unacquainted with the ſequel, we ſhould congratulate the ſociety in being ſo fortunate as to find ſuch a man for one of their miſſionaries: but the reader will ſoon be acquainted with the melancholy circumſtance to which we allude.

Mr. Lucas's hiſtory, being leſs ſingular than that of Mr. Ledyard, is told with more brevity: but enough is ſaid to ſatisfy every reader reſpecting his qualifications. He had been ſent, when a boy, to Cadiz, in Spain, for education as a merchant, and having the misfortune on his return to be captured by a Sallee rover, was brought as a ſlave to the imperial court of Morocco. Three years of captivity preceded his reſtoration to freedom and his conſequent departure from Gibraltar, where, at the requeſt of general Cornwallis, he accepted the offices of vice-conſul and chargé d'affairs in the empire of Morocco, and had the ſatisfaction to return, as the delegate of his ſovereign, to the very kingdom in which, for a long period, he had lived as a ſlave. At the end of ſixteen years, he once more reviſited England, and was ſoon appointed Oriental interpreter to the Britiſh court, in which ſituation he was when he became known to the committee, and expreſſed his willingneſs, with his majeſty's permiſſion, to undertake, in the ſervice of the aſſociation, *whatever journey his knowledge of the manners, cuſtoms, and language, of the Arabs might enable him to perform.*

From two ſuch geographical miſſionaries (obſerves a very reſpectable literary journaliſt *) much information was no doubt expected; and, though the views of the ſociety are not yet fully anſwered, the communications which it has received, are of a nature which will excite, though not fully gratify, the curioſity of geographers.

Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own deſire, the difficult and perilous taſk of traverſing from eaſt to weſt in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the wideſt part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure, he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of Auguſt.

Hence, he tranſmitted ſuch accounts to his employers, as manifeſt him to have been a traveller who obſerved, reflected, and compared; and ſuch was the information which he collected here from the travelling ſlave-merchants, and from others, reſpecting the interior diſtricts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar, (600 miles to the ſouth of Cairo): but death, attributed to various cauſes, arreſted him at the commencement of his reſearches, and diſappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

Endowed with a ſoul for diſcovery, and formed, by nature, for atchievements of hardihood and peril, the death of Ledyard muſt be conſidered as a public misfortune. Ladies, as well as philoſophers, will lament him; eſpecially, when they read his character of the ſex, which, conceiving it to be juſt, we ſhall here inſert.

"I have always remarked that women, in all countries, are civil, obliging, tender and humane; that they are ever inclined to be gay and chearful, timorous and modeſt; and that they do not heſitate like men to perform a generous action. Not haughty, not arrogant, not ſupercilious, they are full of courteſy, and fond of ſociety; more liable, in general, to err than man, but, in general, alſo, more virtuous,

* Monthly Review, new Series, vol. ii. p. 63.

and performing more good actions than he. To a woman, whether civiliſed or ſavage, I never addreſſed myſelf in the language of decency and friendſhip, without receiving a decent and friendly anſwer. With men it has been otherwiſe.

" In wandering over the *barren* plains of *inhoſpitable Denmark*, through *honeſt Sweden*, and *frozen Lapland*, *rude and churliſh Finland*, *unprincipled Ruſſia*, and the *wide-ſpread regions* of the *wandering Tartar*; if hungry, dry, cold, wet, or ſick, the women have ever been friendly to me, and uniformly ſo; and to add to this virtue, (ſo worthy the appellation of benevolence) theſe actions have been performed in ſo free, and ſo kind a manner, that if I was dry, I drank the ſweeteſt draught, and if hungry, I eat the coarſe morſel with a double reliſh *."

" With a mixture of regret and diſappointment, we turn from poor Ledyard, to notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the greateſt part of the volume publiſhed by the aſſociation. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with inſtructions to proceed over the deſert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to tranſmit by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford reſpecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coaſt of Guinea.

" Inſtructions to undertake great enterprizes, are more eaſily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found; and ſo the reader, to his diſappointment, will find likewiſe. Only a part of the plan was this geographic miſſionary able to carry into execution. He ſets out, indeed, mounted on a handſome mule preſented to him by the Bey, the baſhaw's eldeſt ſon, in company with ſhereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan; reſolved, we will ſuppoſe, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia: but his perginations, which began Feb. 1, 1789 terminated at Meſurata, on Feb. 7.

" Deprived of viſiting Fezzan, and the other inland diſtricts of Africa, Mr. Lucas ſolicits the information of his fellow-travellers, and tranſmits to the ſociety the reſult of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a Shereef Imhammed, will not be deemed very ſatisfactory, and yet it certainly merits conſideration, as it is, in part, coroborated by other teſtimonies †.

" The Shereef might not mean to deceive; and yet, in conſequence of his education, and particular prejudices, on account of the language which he uſed, and of not properly diſtinguiſhing between vague report and atteſted facts, we may be allowed to queſtion whether things exactly accord with this relation before us. The Aga Mohammed told Mr. Ledyard, " That he would ſee in his travels, a people who had the power of tranſmuting themſelves into the forms of different animals," p. 28; and hence it is fair to infer, that no abſolute dependence is to be placed on the accuracy of the Mohammedan narrative of the interior diſtricts of this quarter of the globe ‡."

Having no other ſources of information, however, we muſt, for the preſent, content ourſelves with theſe communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the Shereef Imhammed, the following narrative is compoſed:

" It deſcribes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a ſmall circular domain, placed in a vaſt wilderneſs, as an iſland in the midſt of the ocean, containing near an hundred

* Proceedings of the African Aſſociation, p. 44.

† The governor of Meſurata, and Ben Alli, a native of Morocco. This, however, is the ſame ſort of evidence. No European has yet confirmed it; and as for the governor of Meſurata, he was not ſeparately interrogated, but only had the memorandums, which were taken from the Shereef, read to him; the truth of which, however, he confirms. As for Ben Alli's teſtimony, it is given from recollection, impaired by the lapſe of twenty years.

‡ When the perſon in whom Mr. Lucas confides, p. 138, confounds the ſkin of the hippopotamus with that of the camelopardalis, may we not ſuſpect that he confounds many other things?

towns

towns and villages, of which Mourzouk is the capital; diſtant, ſouth, from Meſurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be ſeen ſome venerable remains of ancient magnificence, ſome diſtricts of remarkable fertility, and numerous ſmoaking lakes, producing a ſpecies of foſſil alkali called *trona*. Agriculture and paſturage are the principal occupations of the Fezanners: they do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-duſt: their houſes, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a ſufficient protection. Their dreſs reſembles that of the Moors of Barbary: but, during the heats of ſummer, which are intenſe, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the ſun. To theſe, many particulars are added of their perſons, diſeaſes, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their ſovereign, who is a tributary of the baſhaw of Tripoli, adminiſters impartial juſtice; and, as a proof of the aſcendancy which he poſſeſſes in this reſpect over his ſubjects, the Fezanners, who travelled with Mr. Lucas, deſcribed to him the following cuſtom:

"If a man has injured another, and refuſes to go with him to the judge, the complainant draws a circle round the oppreſſor; ſolemnly charges him, in the king's name, not to leave the place till the officers of juſtice, in ſearch of whom he is going, ſhall arrive; and ſuch (*if they are to be credited*) is, on the one hand, his fear of the puniſhment which is inflicted on thoſe who diſobey the injunction, and ſo great, on the other, is his dread of the perpetual baniſhment which, if he ſeeks his ſafety by withdrawing from the kingdom, muſt be his inevitable lot, that this imaginary priſon operates as a real confinement, and the offender ſubmiſſively waits the arrival of the officers of juſtice."

"The compiler's parentheſis (*if they are to be credited*) precludes the neceſſity of any remark. The narrative proceeds to ſtate, that ſouth-eaſt of Morzouk, at the diſtance of 150 miles, is a ſandy deſert, 200 miles wide; beyond which, are the mountains of Tibeſti, inhabited by ferocious ſavages, tributary to Fezzan. The vallies between the mountains are ſaid to be fertilized by innumerable ſprings, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibeſtins to the king of Fezzan, is twenty camel loads of ſenna.

"This kingdom is inconſiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou, and Caſhna, which lie ſouth of Fezzan, occupying that vaſt region which ſpreads itſelf from the river of the Antelopes, for 1200 miles weſtward, and includes a great part of the Niger's courſe. Caſhna, we are informed, contains a thouſand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is ſtill more conſiderable, thirty languages are ſaid to be ſpoken. The latter is repreſented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being ſituated within a day's journey of the river *Wod-el-Gazel*, which is loſt in the ſandy waſtes of the vaſt deſert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdſmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whoſe wealth conſiſts in their cattle *. (Bornou, or Bernoa, is a word ſignifying the land of Noah: for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various ſorts of grain, the uſe of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only inſtrument of huſbandry. Here, grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two ſpecies of melons, the water and the muſk, are produced in large abundance: but one of the moſt valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedéyna, which, in form and height, reſembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the

* Horſes and horned cattle, goats, ſheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

ſhell are both in great eſtimation, the firſt as a fruit, the laſt on account of the oil which it furniſhes, when bruiſed, and which ſupplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a ſubſtitute for the oil of olives, p. 139, Bees, it is added, are ſo numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we muſt refer to the work. The population is deſcribed by the expreſſion, a *countleſs multitude*. We ſhall paſs over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the ſingular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceaſed ſovereign: but the account of the preſent ſultan, his wives, and his children (p. 227.) is too curious not to be exhibited.

"The preſent ſultan, whoſe name is Alli, is a man of an unoſtentatious, plain appearance; for he ſeldom wears any other dreſs than the common blue ſhirt of cotton or ſilk, and the ſilk or muſlin turban, which form the uſual dreſs of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his ſeraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are ſaid to be 500 in number, and he himſelf is deſcribed as the reputed father of 350 children, of whom 300 are males; a diſproportion which naturally ſuggeſts the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection, the joy of ſeeing herſelf the ſuppoſed parent of a future candidate for the empire, ſometimes exchanges her female child for the male offſpring of a ſtranger."

"We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not poſſeſſed by them.

"South-eaſt from Bornou, lies the extenſive kingdom of Begarmee; and, beyond this kingdom, are ſaid to be ſeveral tribes of Negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human fleſh. Theſe, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmeeſe; and, when they have taken as many priſoners as their purpoſe may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is further ſaid, that if any of them, exhauſted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horſemen ſeizes on the oldeſt, and, cutting off his arm, uſes it as a club to drive on the reſt.

"We are not much diſpoſed to give credit to this relation. That the Negroes, who are ſold for ſlaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they ſhould be driven along with the mangled limbs of their aſſociates, utterly exceeds belief.

"The empire of Caſhna bears a great reſemblance to that of Bornou.

"After peruſing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of theſe regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but ſuſpect conſiderable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often abſent three years, ſufficiently evince: but that they are divided into regular and civilized ſtates, may be a queſtion. *A thouſand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty different languages* ſpoken in the other, manifeſt a diſpoſition in the Shereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at leaſt to retail looſe reports. That they ſhould be acquainted with, yet not poſſeſs fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fiſh that abound in its waters, but little accords with the hiſtory of their commerce, and of their progreſs in manufactures.

"Let us, however, make all poſſible deductions, and be ever ſo incredulous as to ſome particulars, the proſpect which this narrative opens to us, of the interior of Africa (the greater part of which we have been accuſtomed to conſider as conſigned by nature to perpetual ſterility and deſolation) muſt afford great pleaſure; and though, as we have already remarked, it is far from being ſatisfactory, or from having anſwered the object of the miſſion, it may be regarded by the ſociety as that

ſort of evidence which ſhould encourage them to perſevere, and ought to induce Europeans, without delay, actually to explore the central provinces of the African continent."

Of AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope.

See the Table and Map.

THIS immenſe territory is, comparatively, ſpeaking very little known, no modern traveller having penetrated into the interior parts; ſo that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of ſeveral inland countries. In many material circumſtances, the inhabitants of this extenſive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyſſinia, who are tawny, and profeſs a mixture of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm, and Paganiſm, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the ſea-coaſts, which have been viſited and ſettled by ſtrangers, they are pagans: and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, poſſeſs a very extenſive juriſdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are groſsly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in ſmall communities, each governed by its own prince. In Abyſſinia indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but on examination, it is found that the authority of theſe princes ſtands on a precarious footing, each tribe or ſeparate body of their ſubjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, ſtyled Negus, to whoſe commands, however contrary to thoſe of the *Negaſcha Negaſcht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to ſubmit. This indeed muſt always be the caſe among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very ſimple and imperfect ſtate. In the ſucceſſion to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the deſcendants, whether male or female.

The fertility of a country ſo prodigiouſly extenſive, might be ſuppoſed more various than we find it is; in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of ſoil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile: this ariſes from the intenſe heat of the ſun, which, where it meets with ſufficient moiſture, produces the utmoſt luxuriancy; and in thoſe countries where there are few rivers, reduces the ſurface of the earth to a barren ſand. Of this ſort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and conſequently of all other neceſſaries, are reduced to pefect deſerts, as the name of the latter denotes. In thoſe countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyſſinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the higheſt perfection and greateſt abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Caſati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and ſilver. The baſer metals likewiſe are found in theſe and many other parts of Africa. But the perſons of the natives make the moſt conſiderable article in the produce and traffic of this miſerable quarter of the globe.

On the Guinea or weſtern coaſt, the Engliſh trade to James Fort, and other ſettlements

ments near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hardware and ſpirituous liquors, for the perſons of the natives. By the treaty of peace in 1783, the river of Senegal with its dependencies were given up to France. Among the negroes, a man's wealth conſiſts in the number of his family, whom he ſells like ſo many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the ſlave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. Theſe are carried on from the ſame coaſt, where the Dutch and French, as well as Engliſh, have their ſettlements for this purpoſe.

According to Mr. Ramſay, the annual Britiſh exports to Africa are eſtimated at 500,000l. part of which is annually exchanged with American and other foreign traders on the coaſt. About 50,000l. is returned in ivory, gold duſt, gum, &c. The greateſt part of the profits of the ſlave trade is raiſed on the ſugar plantations. If by eſtabliſhing factories, and encouraging civilization on the coaſt of Africa, and returning ſome of our Weſt Indian ſlaves to their original country, we tried to make up for our paſt treachery to the natives, and inſtructed them in the culture of thoſe articles, our demand for which has been ſo advantageous to America, viz. tobacco, indigo, cotton, rice, &c. to barter with us for our manufactures, great would be our profits. Were Africa civilized, and could we pre-occupy the affections of the natives, and introduce gradually our religion, manners, and language among them, we ſhould open a market that would fully employ our manufacturers and ſeamen, morally ſpeaking, till the end of time; and while we inriched ourſelves, we ſhould contribute to their happineſs *. For Africa, in its higheſt probable ſtate of culture, could not poſſibly interfere with the ſtaple of Britain, ſo as to hinder an extenſive and mutally advantageous trade from being carried on between the countries. The great difference of climate and ſoil muſt always diſtinguiſh the ſupplies and wants of each.

The Portugueſe are in poſſeſſion of the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, from the Tropic of Capricorn to the Equator; which immenſe tract they became maſters of, by their ſucceſſive attempts, and happy diſcovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coaſt of Zanguebar, on the eaſtern ſide, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but likewiſe for ſeveral others, as ſena, aloes, civet, ambergriſe, and frankincenſe. The Dutch have ſettlements towards the ſouthern part of the continent in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, particularly Cape Town, which is well ſettled, and fortified; where their ſhips bound for India uſually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them ſpirituous liquors.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

DURING the thirty-ſix hours which I ſpent (ſays monſieur Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make ſeveral obſervations concerning them. I remarked that they make a clapping noiſe with their tongue, like the reſt of the Hottentots. When they accoſt any one, they ſtretch forth the hand, ſaying *Tabé*, I ſalute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffrees, are not uſed by the Hottentots, properly ſo called.

* It is moſt devoutly to be wiſhed by every friend to humanity, that the new ſettlement forming at Sierra Leone (which is 8° 12′ N. L. and about 12° W. L.) under the patronage of a very reſpectable ſociety of gentlemen in London, may anſwer thoſe benevolent purpoſes, for which it was intended; viz. to introduce the light of knowledge, and the comforts of civilization into Africa, to cement and perpetuate the moſt confidential union between the European colony and the natives of that country.

This affinity of cuſtoms, manners, and even conformation, their being ſo near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me theſe *hordes* of Gonaquas, who equally reſemble the Caffrees and the Hottentots, muſt be a mixed breed produced by theſe two nations. The dreſs of the men, arranged with more ſymmetry, has the ſame ſhape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves inſtead of ſheeps ſkins; they are both called *kroſs*. Several of them wear hanging from their necks a bit of ivory, or very white ſheeps bone, and this contraſt of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

When the weather is exceſſively hot, the men lay aſide every part of their dreſs that is ſuperfluous, and retain only what they name their *jackals*. This is a piece of the ſkin of the animal ſo called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is faſtened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be conſidered as an uſeleſs appendage, and is of very little ſervice to their modeſty. The women, much fonder of dreſs than the men, employ more care in adorning their perſons. They wear a *kroſs* like the latter, but the apron which conceals their ſex is larger than thoſe of the Hottentots. During the great heats, they retain only this apron, with a ſkin which deſcends, behind, from their girdle to the calf of the leg. Young girls, below the age of nine years, go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a ſmall apron.

Whatever may be the extent of the deſerts of Africa, we muſt not form any calculations reſpecting its population from thoſe innumerable ſwarms of blacks which are found on the weſt, and which border all the coaſts of the ocean, from the Canary Iſles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; ſince by a trade approved by a few, and held in deteſtation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced theſe negroes, by the moſt villainous attractions, to give up their priſoners, or thoſe who are inferior to them in ſtrength. As their wants increaſed, they have become inhuman and perfidious beings; the prince has ſold his ſubjects; the mother has ſold her ſon; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

This diſguſting and execrable traffic is, however, ſtill unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The deſert is really a deſert; and it is only at certain diſtances that one meets with a few *hordes*, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, one muſt travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryneſs of the ſands, the barrenneſs of the earth, a ſcarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals, and, beſides theſe, the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament, are all obſtacles to propagation. When a father has ſix children, it is accounted a phenomenon.

The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thouſand people, in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. Theſe people did not reſemble thoſe degenerated and miſerable Hottentots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and deſpiſed inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expence of their liberty, only a little peace, purchaſed at a dear rate, by the exceſſive labour to which they are ſubjected on the plantations; and by the deſpotiſm of their chiefs, who are always ſold to government. I had here (continues M. Vaillant) an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence; never obeying any impulſe foreign to nature, and calculated only to deſtroy their magnanimous, free, and truly philanthropic character.

The huts, conſtructed like thoſe of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine

nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or ſheep ſkins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick ſmoke with which theſe kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the ſtench which they always retain, would have ſtifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes: cuſtom, however, renders all this ſupportable to theſe ſavages.

The two colours for which they ſhew the greateſt fondneſs are red and black. The firſt is compoſed of a kind of ochry earth, which is found in ſeveral places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with greaſe: this earth has a great reſemblance to brick-duſt, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing elſe than ſoot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments varied with a certain degree of ſymmetry: and this part of their dreſs requires no ſmall length of time. Theſe two colours, ſo much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the *boughou*, which is not very agreeable to the ſmell of an European. A Hottentot would perhaps find our odours and eſſences no leſs inſupportable; but the *boughou* has over our rouge and paſtes the advantage of not being pernicious to the ſkin, of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, muſk, nor benjamin, never knows what it is to be oppreſſed by vapours, ſpaſm, and the head-ache. The men never paint their faces, but they uſe a preparation made of both colours mixed, to paint the upper-lip as far as the noſtrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the ſubſtance employed for this purpoſe. Young girls ſometimes favour their lovers ſo far as to apply this paint for them under the noſe; and on this point they ſhew a kind of coquetry which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, muſt not infer, that the Hottentot women pay ſo much attention to dreſs as to neglect thoſe daily and uſeful occupations to which nature and their uſages call them. Separated from Europe by an immenſity of ſea, and from the Dutch colonies by deſert mountains and impaſſable rocks, too much communication with theſe people has not yet led them to the exceſſes of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happineſs of being mothers, nature addreſſes them in a different language; they aſſume, more than in any other country, a ſpirit ſuitable to their ſtate, and readily give themſelves up to thoſe cares which ſhe imperiouſly requires of them.

They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exerciſe they diſplay great dexterity. Beſides gins and ſnares, which they place at convenient ſpots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them alſo, attack them as ſoon as they appear, and kill them with their poiſoned arrows, or their aſſagays, which are a kind of lances. On the firſt view of their arrows, one would not ſuſpect how deſtructive weapons they are; their ſmallneſs renders them ſo much the more dangerous, as it is impoſſible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and conſequently to avoid them. The ſlighteſt wound which they make always proves mortal, if the poiſon reaches the blood, and if the fleſh be torn. The ſureſt remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb, but if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable. The aſſagay is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, beſides this, as its length renders it not dangerous, for it may be ſeen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.—Such are the means for attacking or defending, uſed by ſome of the ſavage nations of Africa. They may perhaps incite the indignation of an European, and induce him to tax theſe people with barbarity; but it muſt be remembered that the Europeans, before they employed that terrible thunder which in a moment cauſes

cauſes ſo much devaſtation and ruin, had no other arms but thoſe made of ſteel, and knew alſo the method of ſending a double death to the enemy.

The Hottentots have not the leaſt notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither ſow nor plant, nor do they ever reap any crop.—When they chooſe to give themſelves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor, compoſed of honey and a certain root, which they ſuffer to foment in a certain quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their uſual beverage, nor do they ever keep a ſtock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themſelves in this manner at certain periods. They ſmoke the leaves of a plant which they name *dagha*, and not *daka*, as ſome authors have written. This plant is not indigenous; it is the hemp of Europe. There are ſome of the ſavages who prefer theſe leaves to tobacco; but the greater part of them are fond of mixing both together. They ſet leſs value on the pipes brought from Europe than on thoſe which they fabricate themſelves; the former appear to them to be too ſmall.

Though they rear abundance of ſheep and oxen (continues our author) they ſeldom kill the latter, unleſs ſome accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for ſervice: their principal nouriſhment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, beſides which, they have the produce of their hunting excurſions, and from time to time they kill a ſheep. To fatten their animals they employ a proceſs, which, though not practiſed in Europe, is no leſs efficacious; and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruiſe, between two flat ſtones, thoſe parts which we deprive them of by the knife; and when thus compreſſed they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a moſt delicate morſel, when they have reſolved to ſacrifice the animal.

Thoſe oxen which they intend for carrying burdens muſt be broke and trained very early to the ſervice; otherwiſe they would become abſolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is ſtill young, they pierce the cartilage which ſeparates the noſtrils, and thruſt through the hole a piece of ſtick about eight or ten inches in length, and almoſt an inch in diameter.—The taſk of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are ſurpriſingly tractable, and are abſolutely the ſame ſpecies as thoſe in Europe.

Of their ſheep and kine each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdſman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from thoſe which are taken by our herdſmen, beaſts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the ſouthern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroſes, leopards, tygers, hyænas, and ſeveral kinds of wolves, more deſtructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the foreſts, and occaſionally make excurſions towards the Cape, and deſtroy the tame cattle. To prevent theſe misfortunes, it is the buſineſs of the herdſman to go, or ſend, every day round his diſtrict, in order to diſcover if any beaſt of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which caſe, he aſſembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the ſtouteſt among them arm themſelves with javelins and pointed arrows, and follow the perſon who may have diſcovered the beaſt, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themſelves in two lines; the herdſmen entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beaſt to follow him out, where he is inevitably deſtroyed.

Theſe ſavages meaſure the year by the epochs of drought and rainy weather. This diviſion is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is ſubdivided into moons; but they never count the days, if they exceed ten, that is to ſay, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by ſome re-

markable epoch; for example, an extraordinary ſtorm, an elephant killed, an infectious diſorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they diſtinguiſh by the courſe of the ſun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, he was *there* when I departed, and *here* when I arrived. This method is far from being exact; but notwithſtanding its want of preciſion, it is almoſt ſufficient for theſe people, who having no appointments of gallantry, no law-ſuits to attend, no perfidies to commit, no ſcandal to propagate, no occaſion meanly to cringe before ignorant patrons, and no new play to damn, calmly behold the ſun finiſh his courſe, and are under very little uneaſineſs whether twenty thouſand clocks bring miſery to one and happineſs to another.

A ſenſe of delicacy makes the Hottentots keep themſelves ſeparate from others when they are ſick. They are then ſeldom ſeen, and it would appear that they are aſhamed of having loſt their health. It never enters their thoughts to expoſe themſelves in public for the purpoſe of exciting pity. This is a forced method, but uſeleſs in a country where every body is compaſſionate.

When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worſt kroſs, and the limbs are diſpoſed in ſuch a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then tranſport it to a certain diſtance from the horde, and diſpoſing it in a pit dug for this purpoſe, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with ſtones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mauſoleum proves but a very weak defence againſt the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna: the body indeed is ſoon dug up and devoured. However badly this laſt duty may be diſcharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Parſis, ſtill attached to the cuſtom of expoſing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them, and carry them away in morſels. The children, and, failing them, the neareſt relations of the deceaſed, take poſſeſſion of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor diviſions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the moſt intrepid march in the van; and, when victory declares itſelf, they do not beſtow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved ſucceſsful by the courage of all: it is the whole nation that triumph.

Of all the people whom I ever ſaw (obſerves our author) the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be conſidered as free; but they will perhaps be ſoon obliged to remove to a greater diſtance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the eaſt being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their poſſeſſions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtleſs will ſome day ſucceed. Miſery muſt then be the portion of theſe happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be deſtroyed by maſſacres and invaſions. Thus have all thoſe hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often diſmembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a ſtate of abſolute dependence on the Dutch. The exiſtence of the Hottentots, their names, and their hiſtory, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unleſs ſome traveller, who may poſſeſs curioſity enough to induce him to diſcover their remains, ſhould have the courage to penetrate into the remote deſerts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a ſingle plant worthy to engage the attention of the ſpeculative botaniſt.

Some old authors have ſaid that the families of the ſavages ſleep all promiſcuouſly together in the ſame hut; and are neither acquainted with difference of age, nor that

invincible

invincible horror which ſeparates beings connected by blood: this has led ſome to the moſt infamous ſuſpicions.—Yes, the whole family inhabit the ſame hut; the father lies by the ſide of his daughter, and the mother by the ſon; but on the return of Aurora each riſes with a pure heart, and without having occaſion to bluſh before the Author of all Beings, or any of the creatures whom he has marked with the ſeal of his reſemblance. A ſavage is neither a brute, nor a barbarian.

It is neceſſary in this narration to take notice of that diſguſting apron of the Hottentot women, which has long made a figure in hiſtory. It is ſtill faſhionable among a certain horde. I ſay, it is faſhionable (obſerves M. Vaillant); for, inſtead of being the gift of nature, it ought to be conſidered as one of the moſt monſtrous refinements ever invented by I know not what coquetry, altogether peculiar to a certain ſmall corner of the world. This ſingularity is nothing elſe but a prolongation of the nymphæ, occaſioned by weights ſuſpended from them. They may hang down about nine inches more or leſs, according to the age of the perſon, or the aſſiduous care which is beſtowed on this ſingular decoration.

A phyſiognomiſt, or, if the reader chooſes, a modern wit, would entertain his company by aſſigning to the Hottentot, in the ſcale of beings, a place between a man and the ourang-outang. I cannot however conſent to this ſyſtematic arrangement; the qualities which I eſteem in him will never ſuffer him to be degraded ſo far; and I have found his figure ſufficiently beautiful, becauſe I experienced the goodneſs of his heart. It muſt indeed be allowed, that there is ſomething peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree ſeparates him from the generality of mankind, his cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; ſo that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw bones on the contrary extremely narrow, his viſage continues ſtill decreaſing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankneſs, which makes his head appear very much diſproportioned, and too ſmall for his full and plump body. His flat noſe riſes ſcarcely half an inch at its greateſt elevation; and his noſtrils, which are extremely wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his noſe. His mouth is large, and furniſhed with ſmall teeth, well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the noſe, like thoſe of the Chineſe; and to the ſight and touch his hair has the reſemblance of wool; it is very ſhort, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no ſmall care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinneſs of his eyebrows ſaves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the noſe, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as ſoon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which joined to the natural mildneſs of his character, deſtroys that commanding fierceneſs common to all men in a ſtate of nature, and which has acquired them the proud title of kings.—The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the ſame characteriſtic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breaſts, admirably placed, have a moſt beautiful form, while in the bloom of youth; and their hands are ſmall, and their feet exceedingly well ſhaped, though they never wear ſandals. The ſound of their voice is ſoft; and their idiom, paſſing through the throat, is not deſtitute of harmony. When they ſpeak, they employ a great many geſtures, which give power and gracefulneſs to their arms.

The Hottentots, being naturally timid, are conſequently not at all an enterprizing people. Their phlegmatic coolneſs, and their ſerious looks, give them an air of reſerve, which they never lay aſide, even at the moſt joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themſelves up to pleaſures with the livelieſt joy, and without any reſtraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a ſubſiſtence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as ſportſmen, but like people oppreſſed and tormented by hunger. In ſhort, forgetting the paſt, and being under no neceſſity for the future, they are ſtruck only with the preſent; and it is that which alone engages their attention.

They are however (according to our traveller) the beſt, the kindeſt, and the moſt hoſpitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be aſſured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive preſents, yet they never aſk for anything. If the traveller has a long journey to accompliſh, and if they learn from the information he requires, that there are no hopes of his ſoon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit, ſupply him with proviſions as far as their circumſtances will allow, and with every thing elſe neceſſary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his deſtination. Such are theſe people, or at leaſt ſuch did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners, and of a paſtoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a ſtate of infancy.

CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria, is a very extenſive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyſſinia; on the weſt by part of Guinea, Congo, and the ſea; on the ſouth by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the eaſt by the ſea. It is divided into ſeveral territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long, and 660 broad.

We ſhall give a more particular deſcription of the people from two modern writers; the firſt celebrated for his botanical knowledge, the other for his taſte in natural hiſtory, but more eſpecially for his very entertaining and intereſting travels into the interior parts of Africa, which, it is hoped, will not prove unacceptable to the reader.

The men among the Caffrees, ſays lieutenant Paterſon, are from five feet ten inches to ſix feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beaſts of prey.

The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The cloathing of both ſexes is nearly the ſame, conſiſting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of braſs in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are alſo adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers faſtened in their heads, with many other fantaſtical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle, and to ſuch a height do they carry this paſſion, that if one particularly pleaſes them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it.—Their whole exerciſe through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances, and in time of war, uſe ſhields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate ſeveral vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country, ſuch as tobacco, water melons, a ſort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women alſo make baſkets, and the mats which they ſleep on.—The men have great pride in their cattle;

tle; they cut their horns in ſuch a way as to be able to turn them into any ſhape they pleaſe, and they teach them to anſwer a whiſtle. When they wiſh their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the houſe, and blow this ſmall inſtrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and ſo conſtructed as to be heard at a great diſtance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The ſoil of this country is a blackiſh loomy ground, and ſo extremely fertile, that every vegetable ſubſtance, whether ſown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance.—There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to obſerve the degrees of heat. It ſeldom rains, except in the ſummer ſeaſon, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well ſupplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furniſhes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I obſerved of this country, I am induced to believe that it is greatly ſuperior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce variety of arborious plants, and ſome of a great ſize; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were alſo variety of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were ſo ſhy, that I was able only to preſerve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffrees by thoſe I had ſeen, ſays Monſieur Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquais, though they greatly reſemble the latter, but are more robuſt, and poſſeſs a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewiſe more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom, nor do the cheek bones of theſe people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours the negroes of Moſambique, but a well formed contour, and agreeable noſe, with eyes ſparkling and expreſſive; ſo that ſetting aſide our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handſome by the ſide of an European lady. They do not diſfigure themſelves by daubing their eye-brows like the Hottentots; but are very much tatooed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffrees, which is ſtrong and curling, is never greaſed; but they anoint the reſt of their bodies, with a view of making themſelves active and ſtrong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and braſs rings. They are ſeldom ſeen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tuſks of an elephant, which they ſaw to a convenient thickneſs, and then poliſh and round. As theſe rings cannot be opened, it is neceſſary to make them big enough to paſs the hand through, ſo that they fall or riſe according to the motion of the arm. Sometimes they place ſmall rings on the arms of their children, whoſe growth ſoon fills up the ſpace, and fixes the ornament, a circumſtance which is particularly pleaſing to them.

They likewiſe make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they poliſh and whiten in the moſt perfect manner. Some content themſelves with the leg bone of a ſheep hanging on the breaſt, which is thought as pleaſing a decoration, as a patch on the face of a pretty woman. In the warm ſeaſon the Caffrees only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold, they make uſe of kroſes made of the ſkins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deſerves attention, and does not exiſt elſewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments. Indeed they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other ſavages; and never uſe the uncouth profuſion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like thoſe of the Gonaquais, are bordered with ſmall rows of beads, which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The

The ſkin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree women wears as high as her ſhoulders, tying it over the boſom which it covers. They have, like the men, a kroſs or cloak of calf or ox ſkin diveſted of the hair; but it is only in the cold and rainy ſeaſon that either ſex wear it. Theſe ſkins are as ſoft and pliant as the fineſt ſtuffs. Let the weather or the ſeaſon prove ever ſo bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have ſeen the head of a Caffree adorned with a feather ſtuck in the hair; but this ſight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthen ware, which they faſhion as dexterouſly as their huſbands: they likewiſe make a curious kind of baſkets, of a texture ſo compact as to contain milk; and they alſo prepare the fields for ſeed, ſcratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

The huts of the Caffrees are higher and more commodious than thoſe of the Hottentots; it is abſolutely a perfect hemiſphere; they are compoſed of wooden work, very ſtrong and compact, covered both within and without, with a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or door-way is ſo low, that to enter the dwelling you muſt crawl on your hands and knees, which makes it eaſier to defend themſelves againſt animals, or the ſudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth or fire-place is in the centre, ſurrounded by a circular rim which riſes two or three inches.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their ſituation, or the number of ſmall rivers that refreſh them, are more fertile than thoſe of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practiſe agriculture, which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues Monſieur Vaillant, that notwithſtanding the beautiful foreſts that adorn Caffraria, and delightful paſtures which ſpring up and almoſt cover the animals which feed on them; notwithſtanding thoſe rivers and ſtreams which croſs each other in a thouſand different directions to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almoſt all their animals, are much ſmaller than thoſe of the Hottentots—a difference which undoubtedly ariſes from the nature of the ſap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of graſs. I have made the obſervation both on domeſtic and wild animals, which never acquire the ſize of thoſe bred in the dry barren countries I have paſſed through.

Induſtry is the leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some arts, taught indeed by neceſſity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, diſtinguiſh them as a more civiliſed people than thoſe towards the ſouth.

Circumciſion, which is generally practiſed among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have ſimply imitated the inhabitants of ſome neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance, neither do they uſe it (as they ſay) in any religious or myſtical ſenſe.

They entertain a very high opinion of the ſupreme being, and of his power; believe in a future ſtate, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked puniſhed; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in the preſent ſtate. They have no ſacred ceremonies, and never pray. They inſtruct their own children, having no prieſts; but inſtead of them a kind of ſorcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly diſtinguiſh and revere.

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whoſe power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared but reſpected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his ſubjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleaſes, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is neceſſary that he ſhould have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed; theſe

theſe being his only reſources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher, nor better decorated than the reſt; his whole family and ſeraglio live round him, compoſing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts; the adjoining land is generally of his own cultivation.

It is a cuſtom among the Caffrees for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nouriſhment, and which they grind, or rather cruſh between two ſtones; for which reaſon, the families living ſeparately, each ſurrounded by his own plantation of corn, occaſions a ſmall *horde* ſometimes to occupy a league ſquare of ground, a circumſtance never ſeen among the Hottentots.

The diſtance of the different *hordes* makes it neceſſary that they ſhould have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he ſends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their ſeveral *hordes*.

The principal weapon of the Caffree is the lance or aſſaygay, which ſhews his diſpoſition to be at once intrepid and noble, deſpiſing, as below his courage, the invenomed dart, ſo much in uſe among hisneighbours; ſeeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a ſhield of about three feet in height, made of the thickeſt part of the hide of a buffalo; this defends him from the arrow or aſſaygay, but is not proof againſt a muſket ball. The Caffree alſo manages with great ſkill, a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a ſolid piece of wood, three or four inches thick, in the largeſt part, and gradually diminiſhing towards one of the ends. When, in a cloſe engagement, they ſtrike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the diſtance of fifteen or twenty paces, in which caſe it ſeldom fails of the intended effect.

The ſovereignty here is hereditary, the eldeſt ſon ever ſucceding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother ſucceeds, but the eldeſt nephew; and in caſe the king ſhould have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon theſe occaſions a ſpirit of party ſometimes prevails, which gives riſe to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodſhed.

Polygamy is cuſtomary among the Caffrees, their marriages are even more ſimple than thoſe of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but ſeldom refuſe their conſent; after which they rejoice, drink and dance for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but theſe feaſts are never held but on the firſt eſpouſals. They have no muſical inſtruments but ſuch as are uſed by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the ſtep is not unlike the Engliſh.

At the death of the father, the ſons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unleſs it pleaſes ſome man to take them; and if this circumſtance takes place, during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are ſeldom buried, but carried away from the Kraal by their family, and depoſited in a deep trench common to the whole horde on ſuch occaſions, where the wild beaſts repair at leiſure, which preſerves the air from thoſe noxious vapours which otherwiſe the putrefaction would occaſion. The honours of burial are only due to the king or chief of a horde. They cover theſe bodies with piles of ſtones in the form of a dome.

I am unacquainted with the diſpoſition of the Caffrees, reſpecting love and jealouſy, but believe that they only feel the latter ſenſation in regard to their countrymen; voluntarily giving up their women for a ſmall conſideration to the firſt white man that expreſſes an inclination for them.

History.] The history of this continent of Africa is little known. We learn from the ancients, who ſailed a conſiderable way round the coaſts, that the inhabitants were in the ſame rude ſituation near 2000 years ago in which they are at preſent. This may either be accounted for by ſuppoſing, that nature has placed ſome inſuperable barrier between the natives of this diviſion of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe; or that the former being ſo long accuſtomed to a ſavage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became hardly capable of making any progreſs in civility or ſcience. It is very certain that all the attempts of the Europeans, particularly of the Dutch at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the leaſt impreſſion on theſe ſavage mortals, or giving them the leaſt inclination or even idea of the European manner of life.

The Portugueſe are ſovereigns of the greateſt part of the coaſt, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are ſome independent princes who have extenſive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the moſt noted of any for the infamous ſlave-trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human fleſh, and encouraged in the Negro countries, wars, rapine, deſolation, and murder, that the Weſt India iſlands might be ſupplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa hath exceeded 100,000, many of whom are driven a thouſand miles to the ſea coaſt, their villages having been ſurrounded in the night by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

A ſea officer lately viſited all the chiefs of the Negroes in our ſettlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than 250 miles, and found the police and puniſhment of all crimes regulated by the ſlave-trade. Thoſe who commit crimes or treſpaſſes againſt their laws, are, at the deciſion of twelve elders, ſold for ſlaves for the uſe of their government, and the ſupport of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the higheſt crimes, and, whenever they are detected, ſubject the whole family to ſlavery. But any individual condemed to ſlavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own perſon, by furniſhing two ſlaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to ſlavery; if a woman, the female part is ſold. "This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchaſe them, uſe any pains to inſtruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppreſſion thus exerciſed on them. I am ſorry to ſay they are unnaturally averſe to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portugueſe, French, and Spaniards, in their ſettlements, ſucceeded in their attempts to inſtruct them, as much to the advantage of commerce, as of religion. It is for the ſake of Chriſtianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that Engliſh ſlaves embrace every occaſion of deſerting to the ſettlements of thoſe nations."

It is high time for the legiſlature to interfere and put an end to this moſt infamous of all trades, ſo diſgraceful to the Chriſtian name, and ſo repugnant to the principles of our conſtitution. Let the negroes already in our iſlands be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population; meaſures that would be attended with no leſs profit than honour.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African iſlands, ſome lie in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, and ſome in the Weſtern or Atlantic. We ſhall begin with thoſe in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagaſcar, the Comora Iſlands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This iſland is ſituated in eaſt lon. 53, north lat. 12, thirty leagues eaſt of Cape Gardefoi, on the continent of Africa: it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ſhips uſed formerly to put in when they loſt their paſſage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding moſt of the fruits and plants that are uſually found within the tropics, together with frankincenſe, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or Sheik who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The iſland of Babelmandel gives name to the ſtrait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is ſituated in eaſt long 44-30, north lat. 12, about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. The Abyſſinians or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preſerves a communication with the ocean. This ſtrait was formerly the only paſſage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but ſince the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The iſland is of ſmall value, being a barren, ſandy ſpot of earth, not five miles round.

COMORA. Theſe iſlands are, Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angezeia, and Comora; ſituated between 41 and 46 eaſt lon. and between 10 and 14 ſouth lat. at an equal diſtance from Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which claims ſovereignty over, and exacts tribute from the others, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. Eaſt-India ſhips, bound to Bombay, uſually touch here for refreſhments. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. eaſt lon. and between 10 and 26 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſouth-eaſt of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and is exceeding rough between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel, or paſſage, through which all European ſhips, in their voyage to and from India, generally paſs, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Madagaſcar is a pleaſant and fertile country, abounding in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones,

iron, ſome ſilver, copper, ſteel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well ſtored with fiſh. The air is generally temperate, and ſaid to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions: ſome white, ſome negroes, ſome Mahometans, ſome pagans. The whites, and thoſe of a tawny complexion who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip, except that they offer ſacrifices of beaſts on particular occaſions; as when ſick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their aſſemblies, circumciſe their children, declare war, enter into new-built houſes, or bury their dead. Many of them obſerve the Jewiſh ſabbath, and give ſome account of the ſacred hiſtory, the creation and fall of man, as alſo of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; from whence it is conjectured that they are deſcended of Jews who formerly ſettled here; though none knows how or when. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1642; but the people diſliking their government, they were driven out in 1651; ſince which the natives have had the ſole poſſeſſion of the iſland, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon each other for ſlaves and plunder.

Mauritius, or Maurice, was ſo called by the Dutch, who firſt touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder; but the French, its preſent maſters, have given it the name of THE ISLE OF FRANCE. It is ſituated in eaſt lon. 56, ſouth lat. 20, about 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It is of an oval form about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ſhips, ſecure againſt any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleaſant. The mountains, of which there are many, and ſome ſo high that their tops are covered with ſnow, produce the beſt ebony in the world, beſides other various kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly reſemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The iſland is watered with ſeveral pleaſant rivers well ſtocked with fiſh; and though the ſoil is none of the moſt fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and ſheep.

Bourbon. The Iſle of Bourbon is ſituated in eaſt long. 54, ſouth lat. 21, about 300 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and ſouth ſides; but hardly a ſingle harbour where ſhips can ride ſecure againſt thoſe hurricanes which blow during the monſoons. Indeed the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with blind rocks, ſunk a few feet below the water, that coaſting along ſhore is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, ſmoke, and ſulphur, with a hideous roaring noiſe, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the ſea and land: ſometimes, however, terrible hurricanes ſhake the whole iſland almoſt to its foundation; but generally without any other bad conſequence than frightening the inhabitants. The iſland abounds in brooks and ſprings, and in fruits, graſs, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and raiſins, particularly benzoin of an excellent ſort in great plenty. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes,

and

and every part or the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are found upon the ſhore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleaſant to the palate. The French firſt ſettled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now ſome conſiderable towns in the iſland, with a governor; and here their Eaſt-India ſhips touch and take in refreſhments.

There are a great many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where deſcribed.

Leaving therefore the eaſtern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immenſe ocean, lying between the two grand diviſions of the globe, having Europe, Aſia, and Africa, or the Old World, on the eaſt; and America, or the New World, on the weſt; towards which diviſion we now ſteer our courſe, touching in our way at the following iſlands upon the African coaſt, that have not yet been deſcribed, viz. St. Helena, Aſcenſion, St. Matthew, St. Thomas's, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira iſlands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The firſt iſland on this ſide the Cape is St. Helena, ſituated in weſt lon. 6-4, ſouth lat. 16, being 1200 miles weſt of the continent of Africa, and 1800 eaſt of South America. The iſland is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high, and very ſteep, and only acceſſible at the landing-place, in a ſmall valley at the eaſt ſide of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually daſhing on the ſhore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the iſland but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again. The Engliſh plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the laſt, however, moſt part is deſtroyed by the rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be deſtroyed; ſo that the flour they uſe is almoſt wholly imported from England; and in times of ſcarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes inſtead of bread. Though the iſland appears on every ſide a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diverſified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-ſtuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geeſe, and turkeys, with which they ſupply the ſailors, taking in exchange ſhirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of callico, filks, muſlins, arrack, ſugar, &c.

St. Helena is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe on the feſtival of the empreſs Helena, mother of the emperor Conſtantine the Great, whoſe name it ſtill bears. It does not appear that the Portugueſe ever planted a colony here: and the Engliſh Eaſt India company took poſſeſſion of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by ſurpriſe. However, the Engliſh, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the ſpace of a year, and at the ſame time took three Dutch Eaſt India ſhips that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the iſland, moſt of them deſcended from Engliſh parents. The Eaſt India ſhips take in water and freſh proviſions here, in their way home; but the iſland is ſo ſmall, and the wind ſo much againſt them outward bound, that they then very ſeldom ſee it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtore-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed by the company, beſides a public

table well furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and principal paſſengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This iſland is ſituated in 7 deg. 40 min. ſouth lat. 600 miles north-weſt of St. Helena: it received its name from its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Aſcenſion-day; and is a mountainous, barren iſland, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but has a ſafe, convenient harbour, where the Eaſt India ſhips generally touch to furniſh themſelves with turtles or tortoiſes, which are very plentiful here, and vaſtly large, ſome of them weighing above a hundred pounds. The ſailors going aſhore in the night-time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are ſometimes ſo cruel, as to turn many more than they uſe, leaving them to die on the ſhore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a ſmall iſland lying in 6-1 weſt lon. and 1-30 ſouth lat. 300 miles to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, and was alſo diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who planted and kept poſſeſſion of it for ſome time; but afterwards deſerting it, this iſland now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to ſettle there, except a ſmall lake of freſh water.

The four following iſlands, viz. ST. THOMAS, PRINCES ISLAND, ANNABOA, and FERNANDOPÓ, are ſituated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and belong ſtill to them; they furniſh ſhipping with freſh water and proviſions as they paſs by. And, to the honour of the Portugueſe government, and diſgrace of our Weſt India legiſlatures, there are 15,000 Negro Chriſtians in St. Thomas', inſtructed to read and write, who daily attend divine worſhip, clean and well clothed.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands are ſo called from a cape of that name on the African coaſt, near the river Gambia, over againſt which they lie, at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 degrees weſt lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered in the year 1460, by the Portugueſe, and are about 20 in number; but ſome of them, being only barren, uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the moſt conſiderable, and are ſubject to the Portugueſe. The air, generally ſpeaking, is very hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the deſcendants of Europeans, and negroes.

ST. JAGO, where the Portugueſe viceroy reſides, is the moſt fruitful, beſt inhabited, and largeſt of them all, being 150 miles in circumference, yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, India corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits; but the plant of moſt conſequence is madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is plenty of roots, garden-ſtuffs, hogs, and poultry, and ſome of the prettieſt green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an Engliſh and French ſquadron), ſituated on the eaſt ſide, has a good port, and is ſeldom without ſhips, thoſe outward-bound to Guinea or the Eaſt Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreſhments.

In the iſland of MAYO or MAY, immenſe quantities of ſalt are made by the heat of

of the ſun from the ſea-water, which at ſpring-tides, is received into a ſort of pan, formed by a ſand-bank, which runs along the coaſt for two or three miles. Here the Engliſh drive a conſiderable trade for ſalt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the veſſels that come to load with it, which in ſome years amount to a hundred or more. The ſalt coſts nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ſhips come hither for a freight of aſſes, which they carry to Barbadoes and other Britiſh plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads ſalt, and is pleaſed to be invited aboard their ſhips. The ſea water is ſo clear on this coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor, who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are, in general, expert at diving.

The iſland of Fogo is remarkable for being a volcano, continually ſending up ſulphureous exhalations; and ſometimes the flame breaks forth like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice ſtones that annoy all the parts adjacent.

Goree is ſituated within cannon-ſhot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43, W. lon. 17-20 and was ſo called by the Dutch, from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance riſes from its ſituation for trade ſo near Cape Verd, and it has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the Engliſh; but in 1665 it was re-taken by the Dutch, and in 1677 ſubdued by the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till the year 1759, when the Britiſh arms were every where triumphant. It was reſtored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was re-taken by the Engliſh in the laſt war but again reſtored at the peace of 1783.

Canaries. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Iſlands, are ſeven in number, and ſituated between 12 and 19 degrees weſt lon. and between 27 and 29 degrees north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuertuventura, and Langorote. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure, temperate air, and abound in the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially grapes, which produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greateſt part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at ten thouſand hogſheads annually. The Canaries abound with thoſe little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now ſo common and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo extremely fertile, as to produce two harveſts in the year. Teneriffe, the largeſt of theſe iſlands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glaſs obſerves, that in coming in with this iſland, in clear weather, the Peak may be eaſily diſcerned at 120 miles diſtance, and in ſailing from it at 150. The Peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat biſhop of Rocheſter, publiſhed in the Phioſophical

Tranſactions, near three miles perpendicular; but lately aſcertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out ſuch quantities of ſulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richeſt lands into barren deſerts. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to the navigation on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the reſt of the world, until, they were again diſcovered in the year 1405, by the Spaniards, to whom they ſtill belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives reſembled the Africans in their ſtature and complexion when the Spaniards firſt came among them, their language was different from that ſpoken on the continent; they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three iſlands called the Madeiras, are ſituated, according to the author of Anſon's voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27 north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-50 weſt lon. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee in Morocco. The largeſt, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almoſt covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is compoſed of one continued hill, of a conſiderable height, extending from eaſt to weſt; the declivity of which, on the ſouth ſide, is cultivated and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. There is but one conſiderable town in the whole iſland, which is named Fonchial, ſeated on the ſouth part of the iſland, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the ſea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it.

Though this iſland ſeems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1519: but others aſſert that it was firſt diſcovered by an Engliſhman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it, and are ſtill almoſt the only people who inhabit it. The Portugueſe, at their firſt landing, finding it little better than a thick foreſt, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by ſetting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richeſt wine, ſugar, the moſt delicate fruits, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds alſo with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls, beſides numerous groves of cedar trees, and thoſe that yield a juice called dragon's blood, maſtic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this iſle make the beſt ſweet-meats in the world, and ſucceeded wonderfully in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which exceed thoſe of Genoa. The ſugar they make is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This indeed is ſaid to be the firſt place in the Weſt where that manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence it was carried to the Braſils in America. The Portugueſe not finding it ſo profitable as at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the iſland, malmſy, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. No leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of Madeira, it is ſaid, are yearly exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes,

the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved, when expoſed to the ſun in barrels, after the bung is taken out. It is ſaid no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other iſlands, one is called Port Santo, which lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compaſs, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ſhips may ride with ſafety againſt all winds, except the ſouth-weſt; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other iſland is an inconſiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we cloſe the account of Africa, we continue our courſe weſtward through this immenſe ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called the Weſtern Iſlands, that are ſituated between 25 and 32 degrees weſt lon. and between 37 and 40 north latitude, 900 miles weſt of Portugal, and as many eaſt of Newfoundland, laying almoſt mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Micheal, Tercera, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were diſcovered in the middle of the fifteenth century by Joſhua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Liſbon, was by ſtreſs of weather, driven to theſe iſlands, which he found deſtitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemiſh Iſlands. On his arrival at Liſbon, he boaſted of this diſcovery, on which the Portugueſe ſet ſail immediately, and took poſſeſſion of them, to whom they ſtill belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All theſe iſlands enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air; but are expoſed to violent earthquakes and inundations, from both which they have frequently ſuffered much damage. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; alſo in cattle, fowl, and fiſh. It is ſaid that no poiſonous or noxious animals breed on the Azores, and that if carried thither they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largeſt, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the Engliſh in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the moſt important of theſe iſlands, on account of its harbour, which is ſpacious, and has good anchorage, but is expoſed to the ſouth eaſt winds. It is generally viſited by homeward bound fleets from Braſil, Africa, and the Eaſt Indies. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the reſidence of the governor of theſe iſlands, as well as of the biſhop.

AMERICA.

Its Discovery and Conquest.

WE are now to treat of a country of vaſt extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of Art, owes in many reſpects more to that of Nature that any other diviſion of the globe. The particular circumſtances of this country require that we ſhould in ſome meaſure vary our plan, and, before deſcribing its preſent ſtate, afford ſuch information with regard to its diſcovery, as is moſt neceſſary for ſatisfying our readers.

Towards the cloſe of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their ſupport to commerce. An interference of intereſts inſpired a mutual rivalſhip; but in traffic Venice was much ſuperior. She engroſſed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the moſt valuable in the world; but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Aſia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this ſtate of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whoſe knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much ſuperior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, formed a project of ſailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. But this propoſal of ſailing weſtward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoeſe as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as abſurd. Stung with diſappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his ſcheme before the court of France, where his reception was ſtill more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next reſort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the moſt oppoſite imaginable to a great but uncertain deſign. In Portugal, where the ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery about this time began to operate, he had reaſon to expect better ſucceſs. But the Portugueſe contented themſelves with creeping along the coaſt of Africa, and diſcovering one cape after another: they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open ſea, and of riſking the whole at once. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, ſtill remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his deſign, the more difficulty he found in accompliſhing it, and he was inſpired with that noble enthuſiaſm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he at length ſucceeded and chiefly though the intereſt of queen Iſabella. Columbus ſet ſail in the year 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted *. In this voyage he had athouſand difficulties to contend

* Dr. Robertſon obſerves, that the armament of Columbus was not ſuitable either to the dignity of the nation by which it was equipped, or to the importance of the ſervice for which it was deſtined. It

tend with; the moſt ſtriking was the variation of the compaſs, then firſt obſerved, and which ſeemed to threaten that the laws of Nature were altered on an unknown ocean, and the only guide he had left was ready to forſake him. His ſailors, always diſcontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return. But the firmneſs and addreſs of the commander, and much more the diſcovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. It was on the morning of the 12th of October, that Columbus deſcried an iſland, whoſe flat and verdant fields, well ſtored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, preſented the aſpect of a delightful country. The crew of the Pinta inſtantly began the Te Deum, as a hymn of thankſgiving to God, and were joined by thoſe of the other ſhips, with tears of joy, and tranſports of congratulation. This office of gratitude to Heaven was followed by an act of juſtice to their commander. They threw themſelves at the feet of Columbus with feelings of ſelf-condemnation mingled with reverence, and implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and inſolence. After this the boats were all manned and armed, and they rowed towards the iſland with their colours diſplayed, with warlike muſic and other martial pomp. As they approached the coaſt, they ſaw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the ſpectacle had drawn together, and whoſe attitudes and geſtures expreſſed wonder and aſtoniſhment at the ſtrange objects which preſented themſelves to their view. Columbus was the firſt European who ſet foot in the new world, which he had diſcovered. He landed in a rich dreſs, and with a naked ſword in his hand. His men followed, and kneeling down, they all kiſſed the ground which they had ſo long deſired to ſee; and took ſolemn poſſeſſion of the country for the crown of Caſtile and Leon. The natives of the country were at firſt ſhy through fear, but ſoon became familiar with the Spaniards, and trafficked with them. It was one of the Bahama iſlands on which Columbus had landed, and which he called *San Salvador*; but he ſoon diſcovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that theſe could not be the Indias he was in queſt of. In ſteering ſouthward, however, he found the iſland called Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and what was of ſtill greater conſequence, as it inſured his favourable reception at home, promiſing, from ſome ſamples he received, conſiderable quantities of gold. This iſland therefore he propoſed to make the centre of his diſcoveries: and having left upon it a few of his companions as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure neceſſary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona; Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidſt the acclamations of the people, attended by ſome of the natives, and conveying the gold, the arms, utenſils, and ornaments of the country he had diſcovered. This entry into Barcelona was a ſpecies of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage, he had acquired a general knowledge of all the iſlands in that great ſea which divides North and South America;

It conſiſted of three veſſels. The largeſt, a ſhip of no conſiderable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of Santa Maria, out of reſpect for the Bleſſed Virgin, whom he honoured with ſingular devotion. Of the ſecond, called the Pinta, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis pilot. The third, named the Nigna, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. Theſe two were light veſſels, hardly ſuperior in burden or force to large boats. This ſquadron, if it merits that name, was victualled for twelve months, and had on board ninety men, moſtly ſailors, together with a few adventurers who followed the fortune of Columbus, and ſome gentlemen of Iſabella's court, whom ſhe appointed to accompany him. Though the expence of the undertaking was one of the circumſtances which chiefly alarmed the court of Spain, and retarded ſo long the negociation with Columbus, the ſum employed in fitting out this ſquadron did not exceed four thouſand pounds.

but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had diſcovered were conſidered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave riſe to this opinion was detected, and the true poſition of the new world was aſcertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of *Weſt Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. Thus were the Weſt Indies diſcovered by ſeeking a paſſage to the Eaſt; and even after the diſcovery, ſtill conceived to be a part of the eaſtern hemiſphere. The preſent ſucceſs of Columbus, his former diſappointments, and the glory attending ſo unexpected a diſcovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his deſigns now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of ſeventeen ſail was immediately prepared; all the neceſſaries for conqueſt or diſcovery were embarked, and 1500 men, among whom were ſeveral of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the moſt ample authority. It is impoſſible to determine, whether the genius of this great man, in firſt conceiving the idea of theſe diſcoveries, or his ſagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, moſt deſerve our admiration. Inſtead of hurrying from ſea to ſea, and from one iſland to another, which, agreeably to the vulgar ambition of diſcoverers, was naturally to be expected, Columbus with ſuch a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curioſity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the diſcoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himſelf the unvailing applauſe of viſiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleaſure of ſeeing them. With this view he made for Hiſpaniola, where he eſtabliſhed a colony, and erected forts in the moſt advantageous grounds for ſecuring the dependence of the natives. Having ſpent a conſiderable time in this employment, and laboured for the eſtabliſhment of this colony with as much zeal and aſſiduty as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to aſcertain the importance of his other diſcoveries, and to examine what advantages were moſt likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from ſome ſpecimens, ſeemed a rich country; but whether it was an iſland, or a part of ſome great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To aſcertain this point was the preſent object of his attention. In coaſting along the ſouthern ſhore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled among a multitude of iſlands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. Theſe iſlands, which were well inhabited, and abounded in all the neceſſaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature, where his countrymen expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactreſs, who was always uppermoſt in his memory. In the ſame voyage Jamaica was diſcovered. But to ſo many difficulties was Columbus expoſed, on an unknown ſea, among rocks, ſhelves, and lands, that he returned to Hiſpaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprize.

By the firſt ſucceſs of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the ſame ſucceſs, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain ſet every ſpring in motion againſt him; and there is ſeldom difficulty in finding ſpecious grounds of accuſation againſt ſuch as are employed in the execution of extenſive and complicated plans. An officer was diſpatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a ſpy and informer, and whoſe preſence plainly demonſtrated to Columbus the neceſſity of returning to Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

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It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to ſet out on a third expedition, ſtill more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He deſigned to ſtand to the ſouthward from the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly weſtward, that he might diſcover what opening that might afford to India, or what new iſlands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and ſuffering numberleſs inconveniences from the exceſſive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured by a ſmart gale, and went before it ſeventeen days to the weſtward. At the end of this time, a ſeamen ſaw land, which was an iſland on the coaſt of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having paſſed this iſland, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoque, the admiral was ſurpriſed with an appearance he had never ſeen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occaſioned by a conflict betwixt the tide of the ſea, and the rapid current of that immenſe river. But ſailing forward, he plainly diſcovered that they were in freſh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any iſland ſhould ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on to the weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this diſcovery, he yielded to the uneaſineſs and diſtreſſes of his crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola. In the courſe of this diſcovery, Columbus landed at ſeveral places, where, in a friendly manner, he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the ſpirit of diſcovery ſpread itſelf widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wiſhed to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without poſſeſſing his abilities. The Portugueſe diſcovered Braſil, which makes at preſent the moſt valuable part of their poſſeſſions: Cabot, a native of Briſtol, diſcovered the north-eaſt coaſts, which form the United States of America; and Americus Veſpuſius, a merchant of Florence, ſailed to the ſouthern continent; and being a man of addreſs, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impoſed on by the name; it is univerſally known that Columbus was the firſt diſcoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the ſmalleſt mortifications to which this great man was expoſed. For ſuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after diſcovering the continent, and making ſettlements in the iſlands of America, he was treated like a criminal, and carried over to Europe in irons. When he arrived in Spain, the court began to be aſhamed of their ungenerous treatment of this great man, and orders were inſtantly iſſued to ſet him at liberty. He vindicated his conduct, in the preſence of the king and queen, in the moſt ſatisfactory manner, and gave ample evidence of the malevolence of his enemies. Ferdinand and Iſabella expreſſed their ſorrow for what had happened, diſavowed their knowledge of it, and joined in promiſing him protection and future favour. Columbus, however, retained a deep ſenſe of the indignity with which he had been treated. The fetters that he had been loaded with were conſtantly hung up in his chamber, and he gave orders that when he died they ſhould be buried in his grave. But, notwithſtanding the ill treatment which he had received, he undertook another voyage in order to make farther diſcoveries. He underwent in the courſe of it great fatigues; and returning to Spain, ended his life at Valladolid on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He had the glory of making the one half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which diſfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him, and accompliſhed the execution of his plan. The ſucceeding governors of Cuba and Hiſpaniola endeavoured to purchaſe the ſame advantages by the blood

of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good ſenſe and humanity. Theſe iſlands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were ſituated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perſuaſion, hurried them to acts of the moſt ſhocking violence and cruelty againſt thoſe unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treaſure. The ſlaughter once begun, they ſet no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hiſpaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de la Caſas, a witneſs of thoſe barbarous depopulations, ſays, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt men. The unhappy ſavages, almoſt naked and unarmed, were purſued like deer in the foreſts, devoured by dogs, killed by gun-ſhot, or ſurpriſed and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only viſited the continent: from what they ſaw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a ſtill more valuable conqueſt. Fernando Cortez was diſpatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horſes, and a ſmall number of field-pieces. With this inconſiderable force, he propoſed to ſubdue the moſt powerful ſtate on the continent of America; this was the empire of Mexico; rich, extenſive, and inhabited by millions of Indians paſſionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whoſe fame in arms ſtruck terror into the neighbouring nations. Never hiſtory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico, it is ſaid, had ſubſiſted for ages: its inhabitants were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a poliſhed and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, that the year conſiſted nearly of 365 days. The ſuperiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the ſure baſis of laws combined with religion, ſeemed to bid defiance to time itſelf. Mexico, the capital of the empire, ſituated in the middle of a ſpacious lake, was the nobleſt monument of American induſtry: it communicated with the continent by immenſe cauſeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of ſtone, its ſquares and market-places, the ſhops which glittered with gold and ſilver, and the ſumptuous palaces of Montezuma, ſome erected on columns of jaſper, and containing whatever was moſt rare, curious, or uſeful. But all the grandeur of his empire could not defend it againſt the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with feeble oppoſition from the nations along the coaſt of Mexico, who were terrified at their firſt appearance: the warlike animals on which the Spaniſh officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which iſſued from their hands, the wooden caſtles which had wafted them over the ocean, ſtruck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover till it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they ſpared no age or ſex, nothing ſacred or profane. At laſt, the inhabitants of Tlaſcala, and ſome other ſtates on the coaſt, deſpairing of being able to oppoſe them, entered into their alliance, and joined armies with thoſe terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and in his progreſs diſcovered a volcano of ſulphur and ſaltpetre, whence he could ſupply himſelf with powder. Montezuma heard of his progreſs, without daring to oppoſe it. This ſovereign is reported by the boaſting Spaniards, to have commanded 30 vaſſals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he durſt not reſiſt a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans, whoſe allegiance would be ſhaken by the firſt reverſe of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and ſuch the effect of the Spaniſh victories, the fame of which always marched before them.

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By ſending a rich preſent of gold, which only whetted the Spaniſh avarice, Montezuma haſtened the approach of the enemy. No oppoſition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is ſet apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the maſters of the new world. He had good reaſon, however, to diſtruſt the affected politeneſs of this emperor, under which he ſuſpected ſome plot for his deſtruction was concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindneſs, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was ſurrounded with artillery, the moſt frightful of all engines to the Americans. At laſt a circumſtance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hoſtilities. In order to ſecure a communication by ſea, to receive the neceſſary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a ſmall garriſon behind him at Vera Cruz, which has ſince become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He underſtood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garriſon in his abſence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himſelf was privy to this violence, and had iſſued orders that the head of the ſlain Spaniard ſhould be carried through his provinces, to deſtroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in perſon to the emperor, attended by a few of his moſt experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, and Cortez ſeemed extremely ready to believe him; though at the ſame time he alledged that the Spaniards in general would never be perſuaded of it, unleſs he returned along with them to their reſidence, which would remove all jealouſy between the two nations. The ſucceſs of this interview ſhewed the ſuperiority of the European addreſs. A powerful monarch, in the midſt of his own palace, and ſurrounded by his guards, gave himſelf up a priſoner, to be diſpoſed of according to the will of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine, by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the higheſt reſpect, or rather a ſuperſtitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and at the ſame time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his taſtes and paſſions, maintained the eaſy ſovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their reſpect? Montezuma was the firſt to teach them more deference. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards? Montezuma aſcended the battlements of his priſon, and harangued his Mexicans into order and ſubmiſſion. This farce continued a long while: but on one occaſion, when Montezuma was ſhamefully diſgracing his character by juſtifying the enemies of his country, a ſtone, from an unknown hand ſtruck him on the temple, which in a few days occaſioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated ſo ſtrongly with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who from the beginning diſcovered an implacable animoſity againſt the Spaniſh name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans ruſhed againſt thoſe very men, whom a little before they had offered to worſhip. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly eſtabliſhed to be expelled from Mexico. The immenſe tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, beſides an amazing quantity of precious ſtones, a fifth part of which being diſtributed among the ſoldiers, ſtimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to periſh, rather than part with ſo precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no ſmall

efforts

efforts for independence; but all their valour, and deſpair itſelf, gave way before what they called the Spaniſh thunder. Guatimozin and the empreſs were taken priſoners. This was the prince who, (when he lay ſtretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him diſcover in what part of the lake he had thrown his riches) ſaid to his high-prieſt, condemned to the ſame puniſhment, and who loudly expreſſed his ſenſe of the pains that he endured, "Do you take me to lie on a bed of roſes?" The high-prieſt remained ſilent, and died in an act of obedience to his ſovereign. Cortez, by getting a ſecond emperor into his hand, made a complete conqueſt of Mexico; together with which the Caſtille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his ſoldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, ſituated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was ſaid to abound in gold and ſilver, and precious ſtones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near thirty degrees, and was the only other country in America which deſerved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened that the Spaniſh government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuſe to adventure on new enterpriſes; certain it is, that this extenſive country, more important than Mexico itſelf, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence of three private perſons. The names of theſe were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a wealthy and artful prieſt. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the ſoul of the enterpriſe, could neither read nor write. They ſailed over into Spain, and without difficulty obtained a grant of what they ſhould conquer. Pizarro then ſet out for the conqueſt of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horſe, and 12 ſmall pieces of cannon, drawn by ſlaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the ſame prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spaniſh nations, and were beſide of a character ſtill more ſoft and unwarlike, it need not ſurpriſe us, after what has been ſaid of the conqueſt of Mexico, that, with this inconſiderable force, Pizarro ſhould make a deep impreſſion on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumſtances likewiſe which, conſpired to aſſiſt him, and which, as they diſcover ſomewhat of the hiſtory, religion and ſtate of the human mind in this immenſe continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of thoſe uncommon men who, calm and diſpaſſionate themſelves, can obſerve the paſſions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He obſerved that the people of Peru were naturally ſuperſtitious, and had a particular veneration for the ſun. He pretended therefore to be deſcended from that luminary, whoſe worſhip he was ſent to eſtabliſh, and whoſe authority he was entitled to bear. By this ſtory, romantic as it appears, he eaſily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his juriſdiction; a larger ſtill he ſubdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the moſt laudable purpoſes. He united and civiliſed the diſtreſſed and barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arts; he ſoftened them by the inſtitution of a benevolent religion; in ſhort, there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were ſo aſſiduouſly cultivated, and where the people were of ſuch mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes ſucceeded Mango, diſtinguiſhed by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as deſcendants of their great God, the Sun. The twelfth

of theſe was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spaniſh Peru. To ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country; and of this marriage was ſprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Hueſcar, of a different mother, had claimed the ſucceſſion to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Hueſcar, as a priſoner, in the tower of Cuſco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed ſtate was the kingdom of Peru when Pizarro advanced to it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in moſt other caſes, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the ſubjection of the empire by unknown perſons, whoſe deſcription was ſuppoſed to correſpond to the appearance of the Spaniards. In theſe circumſtances, Atabalipa, inſtead of oppoſing the Spaniards, ſet himſelf to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whoſe temper partook of the meanneſs of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with thoſe he called Barbarians; but who, however, though leſs acquainted with the cruel art of deſtroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himſelf. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previouſly inſtructed, furiouſly attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were preſſing forward, without regard to their particular ſafety, to defend the ſacred perſon of their monarch, ſeized Atabalipa himſelf, whom they carried off to the Spaniſh quarters. Pizarro, with the ſovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the maſter of Peru: for the inhabitants of this country were as ſtrongly attached to their emperor, as the Mexicans themſelves. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ranſom. On this occaſion the ancient ornaments, amaſſed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treaſures of the moſt magnificent temples, were brought out to ſave him, who was the ſupport of the kingdom and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he propoſed, without releaſing the emperor, to get into his poſſeſſion an immenſe quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro cauſed ſome embarraſſment in his affairs. The friendſhip, or rather the external ſhew of friendſhip, between theſe men, was ſolely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterpriſing ſpirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling paſſion. When their intereſts, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any meaſures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the moſt conſiderable ſhare of the treaſure ariſing from the emperor's ranſom, becauſe he had the chief merit in acquiring it. Almagro inſiſted on being upon an equal footing: and at length, leſt the common cauſe might ſuffer by any rupture between them, this diſpoſition was agreed to. The ranſom was paid without delay, a ſum exceeding their conception, but not ſufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000l. ſterling, and conſidering the value of money at that time, was prodigious; on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the ſhares of the chief commanders and officers, each private ſoldier had above 2000l. Engliſh money. With ſuch fortunes, it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would patiently ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline. They inſiſted on being diſbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand; ſenſible that avarice would ſtill detain many in his family, and that thoſe who returned with ſuch magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to purſue the ſame road

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to wealth. Theſe wiſe reflections were abundantly verified; it was impoſſible to ſend out better recruiting-officers than thoſe who had themſelves ſo much profited by the field; new ſoldiers conſtantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcement.

This immenſe ranſom was only a farther reaſon for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they diſcovered whether he had another treaſure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an averſion againſt the Peruvian emperor, on account of ſome inſtances of craft and duplicity, which he obſerved in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To juſtify this cruel proceeding, a ſham charge was exhibited againſt the unhappy prince, in which he was accuſed of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumſtances equally impertinent. The only juſt ground of accuſation againſt him was, that his brother Hueſcar had been put to death by his command; and even this was conſiderably palliated, becauſe Hueſcar had been plotting his deſtruction, that he might eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility ſet up the full brother of Hueſcar; Pizarro ſet up a ſon of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to eſtabliſh themſelves by the aſſiſtance of the army. Theſe diſtractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at preſent rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought againſt each other; their battles accuſtomed theſe harmleſs people to blood; and ſuch is the preference of a ſpirit of any kind raiſed in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the courſe of thoſe quarrels among themſelves, the inhabitants of Peru aſſumed ſome courage againſt the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cauſe of all their calamities. The loſſes which the Spaniards met with in theſe quarrels, though inconſiderable in themſelves, were rendered dangerous, by leſſening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preſerve among the inhabitants of the new world. This conſideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in ſettling the Spaniards in the country. But as ſoon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war againſt the Indians, and after many difficulties made himſelf maſter of Cuſco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in theſe conqueſts, new grants and ſupplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the ſea-coaſt, to the ſouthward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the ſouthward of Pizarro's government. This diviſion occaſioned a warm diſpute between them, each reckoning Cuſco within his own diſtrict. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He perſuaded his rival, that though the country which really belonged to him, lay to the ſouthward of Cuſco, it was equally rich and fertile, and might be as eaſily conquered as Peru. He offered him his aſſiſtance in the expedition, the ſucceſs of which he did not even call in queſtion.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of ſubduing a kingdom for himſelf, liſtened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged neceſſary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; loſing many of his men as he paſſed over mountains of an immenſe height, and always covered with ſnow. He reduced, however, a very conſiderable part of this country.

country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the diviſion of the Spaniſh troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indiſpoſed, and Almagro removed at a great diſtance, they were well nigh ſucceſsful. The latter, however, no ſooner got notice of the ſiege of Cuſco, than, relinquiſhing all views of diſtant conqueſts, he returned, to ſecure the grand object of his former labours. He raiſed the ſiege with infinite ſlaughter of the aſſailants; but having obtained poſſeſſion of this city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This diſpute occaſioned a long and bloody ſtruggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the reſentment fierce on both ſides, becauſe the fate of the vanquiſhed was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the ſecurity of a rival, in whoſe dangers and triumphs he had long ſhared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been intimately connected. During the courſe of this civil war, many Peruvians ſerved in the Spaniſh armies, and learned, from the practice of Chriſtians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable reſolution. They ſaw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguiſhable reſentment and avarice, and they conjectured that theſe paſſions would never permit their conteſts to ſubſide. Let us retire, ſaid they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will ſpeedily deſtroy each other, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. The reſolution was inſtantly put in practice; the Peruvians diſperſed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each ſide been exactly equal, this ſingular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with ſucceſs. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never ſince ventured to make head againſt the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now ſole maſter of the field, and of the moſt extenſive empire in the world, was ſtill urged on, by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The ſouthern countries of America, into which he had ſome time before diſpatched Almagro, offered the richeſt conqueſt. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potoſi, compoſed almoſt of entire ſilver, had been diſcovered, the ſhell of which only remains at preſent. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, paſſed the Andes, and ſailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immenſe navigation, which diſcovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is moſtly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever ſince, neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with repeated ſucceſs, and having no ſuperior to control, nor rival to keep him within bounds, now gave looſe reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the baſeſt tyranny and cruelty againſt all who had not concurred in his deſigns. This conduct raiſed a conſpiracy againſt him, to which he fell a ſacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himſelf had founded. The partiſans of old Almagro declared his ſon, of the ſame name, their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well ſatisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who ſent over Vaca di Caſtro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wiſdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the moſt advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management the mines of La Plata and Potoſi, which were formerly a matter of

private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were ſilenced or cruſhed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, ſince the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was reſtored to Peru. It ſeems, however, that Di Caſtro had not been ſufficiently ſkilled in gaining the favour of the Spaniſh miniſtry, by proper bribes or promiſes, which in that age a miniſtry would expect from the governor of ſo rich a country. By their advice, a council was ſent over to control Di Caſtro, and the colony was again unſettled. The parties, but juſt extinguiſhed, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, ſet himſelf at the head of his brother's partiſans, with whom many new malecontents had united. It was now no longer a diſpute between governors about the bounds of their juriſdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ſubmiſſion to the king. He ſtrengthened daily; and even went ſo far as to behead a governor who was ſent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spaniſh fleet in the South Seas, by whoſe means he propoſed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the ſituation of affairs, when the court of Spain, ſenſible of their miſtake in not ſending into America men whoſe character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, diſpatched with unlimited powers Peter de la Gaſga, a man differing only from Caſtro by being of a more mild and inſinuating behaviour, but with the ſame love of juſtice, the ſame greatneſs of ſoul, and the ſame diſintereſted ſpirit. All thoſe who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked to his ſtandard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gaſga, forſook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by inſinuation, to return to his duty; and Pizarro himſelf was offered a full indemnity, provided he ſhould return to the allegiance of the Spaniſh crown. But ſo intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard rather than ſubmit to an officer of Spain. With thoſe of his partiſans, therefore, who ſtill continued to adhere to his intereſt, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken priſoner. His execution followed ſoon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a ſacrifice to the ſecurity of the Spaniſh dominion over that country.

The conqueſt of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American hiſtory which deſerves to be treated under the preſent head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the iſlands, if it contains either inſtruction or entertainment, ſhall be treated under thoſe particular countries. We now proceed to examine the manners, government, religion, and whatever compoſes the character of the natives of America: and as theſe are extremely ſimilar all over this part of the globe, we ſhall ſpeak of them in general, in order to ſave continual repetitions; noticing, at the ſame time, when we enter upon the deſcription of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants.

Of the Original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE diſcovery of America has not only opened a new ſource of wealth to the buſy and commercial part of Europe, but an extenſive fiéld of ſpeculation to the philoſopher, who would trace the character of man under various forms of ſociety, and obſerve the movements of the human heart, or the operation of the human underſtanding, when untutored by ſcience, and untainted with corruption. So ſtriking ſeemed the diſparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that ſome ſpeculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impoſſible they ſhould be of the ſame ſpecies, or derived from one common ſource. This concluſion, however, is precipitate and erroneous. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied, according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the neceſſaries of life, the force of cuſtom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumſtances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be diſcovered among them all, notwithſtanding the various ſhades which characteriſe nations, and diſtinguiſh them from each other.

When the thirſt of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the New World immerſed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a ſtate of honeſt independence and noble ſimplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almoſt every European art: even agriculture itſelf, the moſt uſeful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very ſparingly. The only kind of labour on which they depended for acquiring the neceſſaries of life, was that of hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and foreſts ſupplied in great abundance. This exerciſe, which among them is a moſt ſerious occupation, gives a ſtrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The ſame cauſe perhaps renders their bodies in general, where the rays of the ſun are not too violent, uncommonly ſtraight and well proportioned. Their muſcles are firm and ſtrong; their bodies and heads flattiſh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh brown, admired among them, and heightened by the conſtant uſe of bears fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumſtances and way of life. A people who are conſtantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious ſubſiſtence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be ſuppoſed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of ſpirits. The Indians, therefore, are in general grave even to ſadneſs; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to ſome nations of Europe, and they deſpiſe it. Their behaviour to thoſe about them is regular, modeſt, and reſpectful. Ignorant of the arts of amuſement, of which that of ſaying trifles agreeably is one of the moſt conſiderable, they never ſpeak but when they have ſomething important to obſerve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with ſome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoſt continually engaged in purſuits, which to them are of the higheſt importance. Their ſubſiſtence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loſt by the ſmalleſt inattention to

the deſigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than to another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceſſaries of life in greateſt abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the ſame reaſon extremely ſmall, when compared with civiliſed ſocieties, in which induſtry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaſt number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders uſeful to each other. Theſe ſmall tribes live at an immenſe diſtance; they are ſeparated by a deſert frontier, and hid in the boſom of impenetrable and almoſt boundleſs foreſts.

There is eſtabliſhed in each ſociety a certain ſpecies of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with exceeding little variation; becauſe over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly ſimilar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great inſtruments of ſubjection in poliſhed ſocieties, an American has no method by which he can render himſelf conſiderable among his companions, but by a ſuperiority in perſonal qualities of body or mind. But as Nature has not been very laviſh in her perſonal diſtinctions, where all enjoy the ſame education, all are pretty much equal, and will deſire to remain ſo. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing paſſion of the Americans; and their government, under the influence of this ſentiment, is better ſecured than by the wiſeſt political regulations. Though free in the fulleſt ſenſe of the word, they do not deſpiſe all ſort of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wiſdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they inliſt under the banners of the chief, in whoſe valour and military addreſs they have learned to repoſe their confidence. In every ſociety, therefore, there is to be conſidered the power of the chief and of the elders; and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a ſpecies of ariſtocracy. Among thoſe tribes which are moſt engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant; becauſe the idea of having a military leader was the firſt ſource of his ſuperiority, and the continual exigencies of the ſtate requiring ſuch a leader, will continue to ſupport, and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather perſuaſive than coercive; he is reverenced as a father rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice, and one act of ill-judged violence would drive him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be conſidered as an ariſtocracy, have no more power. In ſome tribes, indeed, there is a kind of hereditary nobility, whoſe influence being conſtantly augmented by time, is more conſiderable. But this ſource of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In moſt countries, therefore, age alone is ſufficient for acquiring reſpect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only ſource of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among the Indians, buſineſs is conducted with ſuch ſimplicity as recalls, to thoſe acquainted with antiquity, a picture of the moſt early ages. The heads of families meet together in a houſe or cabin appointed for the purpoſe. Here the buſineſs is diſcuſſed; and here thoſe of the nation, diſtinguiſhed for their eloquence or wiſdom, have an opportunity of diſplaying their talents. Their orators*, like thoſe of Homer, expreſs themſelves in a bold, figurative ſtyle, ſtronger and more expreſſive than refined, or rather ſoftened nations can well bear, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and affecting. When the buſineſs is over, and they happen to be well provided with food, they appoint a feaſt upon the occaſion, of which almoſt the

* See the note p. 863.

whole nation partakes. The feaſt is accompanied with a ſong, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like thoſe of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their muſic and dancing accompany every feaſt.

It often happens, that thoſe different tribes or nations, ſcattered as they are at great intervals, meet in their excurſions after prey. If there ſubſiſts no animoſity between them, which ſeldom is the caſe, they behave in the moſt friendly and courteous manner; but if they happen to be in a ſtate of war, or if there has been no previous intercourſe between them, all who are not friends are deemed enemies, and they fight with the moſt ſavage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their moſt common motive for entering into war, when it does not ariſe from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themſelves for the death of ſome loſt friends, or to acquire priſoners, who may aſſiſt them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their ſociety. Theſe wars are either undertaken by ſome private adventurers, or at the inſtance of the whole community. In the latter caſe, all the young men, who are diſpoſed to go out to battle (for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination), give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their deſign to accompany him; for every thing among theſe people is tranſacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, faſts ſeveral days, during which he converſes with no one, and is particularly careful to obſerve his dreams, which the preſumption natural to ſavages generally renders as favourable as he could deſire. A variety of other ſuperſtitions and ceremonies are obſerved. One of the moſt hideous is ſetting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among ſome nations muſt formerly have been the caſe, ſince they ſtill continue to expreſs it in clear terms, and uſe an emblem ſignificant of the ancient uſage. Then they diſpatch a porcelane, or large ſhell, to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

> "A generous friendſhip no cold medium knows,
> "But with one love, with one reſentment glows."

They think that thoſe in their alliance muſt not only adopt their enmities, but have their reſentment wound up to the ſame pitch with themſelves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendſhips, or their reſentment, ſo far as they do; and this is what ſhould be expected from their peculiar circumſtances; for the Americans who live in ſmall ſocieties, who ſee few objects and few perſons, become wonderfully attached to theſe objects and perſons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themſelves miſerable. Their ideas are too confined to enable them to entertain juſt ſentiments of humanity, or univerſal benevolence. But this very circumſtance, while it makes them cruel and ſavage to an incredible degree, towards thoſe with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendſhips, and to the common tie which unites the members of the ſame tribe, or of thoſe different tribes which are in a ſtate of alliance. Without attending to this reflection, ſome facts we are going to relate, would excite our wonder without informing our reaſon, and we ſhould be bewildered in a number of particulars, ſeemingly oppoſite to one another, without being ſenſible of the general cauſe from which they proceed.

Having

Having finiſhed all the ceremonies previous to the war, they iſſue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermilion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Then they exchange their cloaths with their friends, and diſpoſe of all their finery to the women, who accompany them to a conſiderable diſtance to receive thoſe laſt tokens of eternal friendſhip.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurpriſe; and indeed in theſe they are ſuperior to all nations in the world. Accuſtomed to continual wandering in the foreſts, having their perceptions ſharpened by keen neceſſity, and living in every reſpect according to nature, their external ſenſes have a degree of acuteneſs almoſt incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immenſe diſtance, by the ſmoke of their fires, which they ſmell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they count and diſtinguiſh with the utmoſt facility. They can even diſtinguiſh the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the preciſe time when they paſſed, where an European could not, with all his glaſſes, diſtinguiſh footſteps at all. Theſe circumſtances, however, give them no ſuperiority, becauſe their enemies are equally ſkilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making uſe of any thing by which they might run the danger of a diſcovery. They light no fire to warm themſelves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie cloſe to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that cloſes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they ſuſpect an enemy to lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, maſſacre all the children, women, and helpleſs old men, or make priſoners of as many as they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation. But when the enemy is appriſed of their deſign, and coming on in arms againſt them, they throw themſelves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to reſemble. Then they allow a part to paſs unmoleſted, when all at once, with a tremendous ſhout, riſing up from their ambuſh, they pour a ſtorm of muſket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the ſame cry. Every one ſhelters himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give a ſecond fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is ſo much weakened as to be incapable of farther reſiſtance. But if the force on each ſide continues nearly equal, the fierce ſpirits of the ſavages, inflamed by the loſs of their friends, can no longer be reſtrained. They abandon their diſtant war, they ruſh upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and inſulting their enemies with the bittereſt reproaches. A cruel combat enſues, death appears in a thouſand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouſe the fury of ſavages. They trample, they inſult over the dead bodies, tearing the ſcalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beaſts, and ſometimes devouring their fleſh. The flame rages on till it meets with no reſiſtance; then the priſoners are ſecured, thoſe unhappy men, whoſe fate is a thouſand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors ſet up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have loſt. They approach in a melancholy and ſevere gloom to their own village; a meſſenger is ſent to announce their arrival, and the women, with frightful ſhrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers or their huſbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the

elders, a circumſtantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator* proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of thoſe who have fallen, the ſhrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in theſe cries, according as each is moſt connected with the deceaſed by blood or friendſhip. The laſt ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable tranſition, they paſs in a moment from the bitterneſs of ſorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the priſoners, whoſe fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characteriſes the ſavages.

We have already mentioned the ſtrength of their affections or reſentments. United as they are in ſmall ſocieties, connected within themſelves by the firmeſt ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the moſt intenſe warmth within the walls of their own village, ſeldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their reſentment is eaſily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the ſame tribe. The priſoners, who have themſelves the ſame feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The perſon who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the diſtribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to ſupply the loſs of a citizen. If thoſe who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occaſion for him, or their reſentment for the loſs of their friends be too high to endure the ſight of any connected with thoſe who were concerned in it, they ſentence him to death. All thoſe who have met with the ſame ſevere ſentence being collected, the whole nation is aſſembled at the execution, as for ſome great ſolemnity. A ſcaffold is erected, and the priſoners are

* I may challenge (ſays Mr. Jefferſon, in his notes on Virginia) the whole orations of Demoſthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furniſhed more eminent, to produce a ſingle paſſage ſuperior to the ſpeech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to lord Dunmore, when governor of this ſtate; and, as a teſtimony of their talents in this line, I beg leave to introduce it, firſt ſtating the incidents neceſſary for underſtanding it

In the ſpring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on the inhabitants of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their cuſtom, undertook to puniſh this outrage in a ſummary way. Col. Creſap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on thoſe much-injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanhaway in queſt of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was ſeen coming from the oppoſite ſhore, unarmed, and unſuſpecting an hoſtile attack from the whites. Creſap and his party concealed themſelves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the ſhore, fingled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every perſon in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been diſtinguiſhed as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance; he accordingly ſignalized himſelf in the war which enſued. In the autumn of the ſame year, a deciſive battle was fought at the mouth of the great Kanhaway, between the collected forces of the Shawanees, Mingoes, and Delawars, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and ſued for peace. Logan, however, diſdained to be ſeen among the ſuppliants. But leſt the ſincerity of a treaty ſhould be miſtruſted, from which ſo diſtinguiſhed a chief abſented himſelf, he ſent by a meſſenger the following ſpeech to be delivered to lord Dunmore:

"I appeal to any white man to ſay if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the courſe of the laſt long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed, as they paſſed, and ſaid, 'Logan is the friend of white men.' I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Col. Creſap, the laſt ſpring, in cold blood, murdered all the relations of Logan, not ſparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have ſought it: I have killed many: I have glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to ſave his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan?—Not one."

tied

tied to the ſtake, where they commence their death-ſong, and prepare for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other ſide, are determined to put it to the proof, by the moſt refined and exquiſite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmokes like tobacco; then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones; they pull off the fleſh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them ſucceſſively; they pull off this fleſh, thus mangled and roaſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and ſmearing their faces with the blood in an enthuſiaſm of fury. When they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them, whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increaſe the torment. This continues often five or ſix hours; and ſometimes, ſuch is the ſtrength of the ſavages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to refreſh the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who, wearied out with variety of torture, often falls into ſo profound a lethargy, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his ſufferings. He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and again they renew their cruelty: they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches of wood, that eaſily takes fire, but burns ſlowly; they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt out his eyes; and laſtly, after having burned his fleſh from the bones with ſlow fires; after having ſo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner that it carries nothing human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted upon every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, reels hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or dagger. The body is then put into a kettle, and this atrocious employment is ſucceeded by a feaſt as atrocious.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, even outdo the men in this ſcene of horror; while the principal perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake, ſmoking and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmokes too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt incredible: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance in the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for an Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as an Indian.

Such

Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the face of his tormentors; *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop.*

Theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, becauſe they ſerve to ſhew, in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity the paſſions of men may be carried, when let looſe from the government of reaſon, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Chriſtianity; a religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and it will make us more ſenſible, than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind, as I have already obſerved, forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are in alliance with it: among theſe all things are common; and this, though it may in part ariſe from their not poſſeſſing very diſtinct notions of ſeparate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the ſtrength of their attachment; becauſe in every thing elſe, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to ſerve their friends. Their houſes, their proviſion, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. Has any one of theſe ſucceeded ill in his hunting? Has his harveſt failed? or is his houſe burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortunes than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until by ſome treachery or ſurpriſe he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt, with patience and cheerfulneſs, in hopes of ſurpriſing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt ſhocking barbarities, even to the eating of his fleſh. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed, in general, is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have ſaid reſpecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit obſerving the force of their friendſhip, which principally appears by the treatment of their dead. When any one of the ſociety is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occaſion a thouſand ceremonies are practiſed, denoting the moſt lively ſorrow. Of theſe, the moſt remarkable, as it diſcovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmoſt pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be preſent, and to join in the ſolemnity. At this time, all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn occaſion (which is renewed every ten years among ſome tribes, and every eight among others), are taken

out of their graves: thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſſes.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſinterment. I cannot deſcribe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the moſt authentic account of thoſe nations.

Without queſtion, ſays he, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived: this humbling portrait of human miſery, in ſo many images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure to paint herſelf in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror, in the ſeveral carcaſſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilſt others are all ſwarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deſerves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs; gathering up carefully even the ſmalleſt bones; handling the carcaſſes, diſguſtful as they are with every thing loathſome, cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders through tireſome journeys of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged by the offenſiveneſs of the ſmell, and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe than thoſe of regret for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives, and ſo lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feaſt in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourſes which took place between them and their friends are piouſly called to mind. The ſtrangers, who have come ſometimes many hundred miles to be preſent on the occaſion, join in tender condolence; and the women, by frighful ſhrieks, demonſtrate that they are pierced with the ſharpeſt ſorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each perſon, attended by his family and friends, marches in ſolemn ſilence, bearing the dead body of a ſon, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the duſt of thoſe which were quite corrupted, are depoſited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they poſſeſs moſt valuable is interred with the dead. The ſtrangers are not wanting in their generoſity, and confer thoſe preſents which they have brought along with them for the purpoſe. Then all preſent go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preſerve with the moſt religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and over theſe with bark, on which they throw ſtones, wood and earth. Then taking their laſt farewel, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned, that in this ceremony the ſavages offer, as preſents to the dead, whatever they value moſt highly. This cuſtom, which is univerſal among them, ariſes from a rude notion of the immortality of the ſoul. They believe this doctrine moſt firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the ſoul is ſeparated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it ſtill continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the ſame things with which it formerly was pleaſed. After a certain time, however, it forſakes this dreary manſion, and departs far weſtward into the land of ſpirits. They have even gone ſo

far as to make a diſtinction between the inhabitants of the other world; ſome they imagine, particularly thoſe who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, poſſeſs a high degree of happineſs, have a place for hunting and fiſhing, which never fails, and enjoy all ſenſual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The ſouls of thoſe, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or ſlain in war, are extremely miſerable after death.

Their taſte for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a ſtrong bias to their religion. Areſkoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and according as his diſpoſition is more or leſs favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or leſs ſucceſsful. Some nations worſhip the ſun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the hiſtory of the gods: traditions which reſemble the Grecian fables, but which are more inconſiſtent and infinitely leſs agreeable. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have ſome immediate occaſion for the aſſiſtance of their gods, they pay them no ſort of worſhip. Like all rude nations, however, they are ſtrongly addicted to ſuperſtition. They believe in the exiſtence of a number of good and bad genii or ſpirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happineſs or miſery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diſeaſes proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The miniſters of the genii are the jugglers, who are alſo the only phyſicians among the ſavages. Theſe jugglers are ſuppoſed to be inſpired by the good genii, moſt commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the aſſiſtance of the ſick, and are ſuppoſed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the diſeaſe, and in what manner they muſt be treated. But theſe ſpirits are extremely ſimple in their ſyſtem of phyſic, and in almoſt every diſeaſe, direct the juggler to the ſame remedy. The patient is incloſed in a narrow cabin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well ſoaked with the warm vapour and his own ſweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This coarſe method, which deſtroys many lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewiſe the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the ſavages are dextrous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of theſe remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are adminiſtered.

It ſhould be obſerved by the reader, that the particulars which have juſt been mentioned concerning the manner of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteriſtics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America, were very different. On the firſt appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their diſcoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemiſphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averſe to toil, but ſeemed incapable of it; and when rouſed by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they ſunk under taſks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with eaſe. This feebleneſs of conſtitution ſeemed almoſt univerſal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were alſo ſtruck with the ſmallneſs of their appetite for food. The conſtitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abſtinence of the moſt mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans inſatiably voracious; and they affirmed, that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was ſufficient for ten

Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very ſparing, ſo limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raiſed what was ſufficient for their own conſumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their induſtry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were eaſily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards ſettled in any diſtrict, ſuch a ſmall addition of ſupernumerary mouths ſoon exhauſted their ſcanty ſtores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with thoſe North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, leſs vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle, but daſtardly ſpirit, more enſlaved by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence.

A general Deſcription of AMERICA.

THIS great weſtern continent, frequently denominated the NEW WORLD, extends from the 80th degree North, to the 56 degree South latitude; and where its breadth is ſtnown, from the 35th to the 136th degree Weſt longitude from London; ſtretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greateſt breadth 3690. It ſees both hemiſpheres, has two ſummers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is waſhed by the two great oceans. To the eaſtward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the weſt it has the Pacific, or great South-Sea, by which it is ſeparated from Aſia. By theſe ſeas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two great continents, one on the North, the other on the South, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a ſort of iſthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, ſo extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulf, which is formed between the iſthmus and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie a multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and denominated the Weſt Indies, in contradiſtinction to the countries and iſlands of Aſia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the Eaſt Indies.

Before we begin to treat of ſeparate countries in their order, we muſt, according to juſt method, take notice of thoſe mountains and rivers, which diſdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extendover a great part of the continent. For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world *. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the iſthmus of Darien to the ſtraits of Magellan, they

* Dr. Robertſon obſerves, that "the mountains of America are much ſuperior in height to thoſe in the other diviſions of the globe. Even the plain of Quito, which may be conſidered as the baſe of the Andes, is elevated farther above the ſea than the top of the Pyrenees. This ſtupendous ridge of the Andes, no leſs remarkable for extent than elevation, riſes in different places more than one third above the Pike of Teneriffe once thought to be the higheſt land in the ancient hemiſphere. The Andes may literally be ſaid to hide their heads in the clouds; the ſtorms often roll, and the thunder burſts below their ſummits, which though expoſed to the rays of the ſun in the centre of the torrid zone, are covered with everlaſting ſnows."

divide the whole ſouthern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are conſtantly covered with ſnow †. In North America, which is chiefly compoſed of gentle aſcents, or level plains, we know of no conſiderable mountains, except thoſe towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, ſeparating them from Canada and Louiſiana, which we call the Apalachian, or Alligany mountains; if that may be conſidered as a mountain, which upon one ſide is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the reſt of the country.

America is, without queſtion, that part of the globe which is beſt watered; and that not only for the ſupport of life, and all the purpoſes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade and the intercourſe of each part with the others. In North America, ſuch is the wiſdom and goodneſs of the Creator of the univerſe, thoſe vaſt tracts of country, ſituated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immenſe and unknown diſtance from the ocean, are watered by inland ſeas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give riſe to ſeveral great rivers, particularly the Miſſiſippi, running from north to ſouth till it falls into the gulf of Mexico, after a courſe, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progreſs the vaſt tribute of the Illinois, the Miſaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers, not inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary courſe from the Miſſiſippi, till it empties itſelf into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almoſt navigable to their heads, lay open the immenſe receſſes of this great continent, and afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt produce the greateſt advantage, whenever the country adjacent ſhall come to be fully inhabited, and by an induſtrious and civilized people: The eaſtern ſide of North America, beſides the noble rivers Hudſon, Delaware, Suſquehana, and Potowmack, ſupplies ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation; hence many parts of the ſettlements are ſo advantageouſly interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be ſaid to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if poſſible, in this reſpect even more fortunate. It ſupplies the two largeſt rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate river. The firſt riſing in Peru, not far from the South Sea, paſſes from Weſt to Eaſt, and falls into the ocean between Braſil and Guiana, after a courſe of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata riſes in the heart of the country, and having its ſtrength gradually augmented, by an acceſſion of many powerful ſtreams, diſcharges itſelf with ſuch vehemence into the ſea, as to make its taſte freſh for many leagues from land. Beſides theſe, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoque is the moſt conſiderable.

A country of ſuch vaſt extent on each ſide of the equator, muſt neceſſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates. It is a treaſury of Nature, producing moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and ſilver of America have ſupplied Europe with ſuch immenſe quantities of thoſe precious metals, that they are become vaſtly more common,

† Chimborazo, the higheſt of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the ſummit are always covered with ſnow. Carazon was aſcended by the French aſtronomers, and is ſaid to be 15,800 feet high.

ſo that the gold and ſilver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price ſet upon them before the diſcovery of America.

This country alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other rare ſtones, which, by being brought in great quantities into Europe, have alſo fallen in value. To theſe, which are chiefly the production of Spaniſh America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs price, are of much greater uſe, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the Britiſh empire in this part of the world. Of theſe are the plentiful ſupplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, fuſtic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut, ſugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balſams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jeſuit's bark, mechoacan, ſaſſaffras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergriſe, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the diſcovery of America, we were either entire ſtrangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Aſia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoeſe, who then engroſſed the trade of the eaſtern world.

This continent has alſo a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants; and ſo fertile is the ſoil, that many exotic productions are nouriſhed in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians ſtill live in the quiet poſſeſſion of many large tracts, America, ſo far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, Engliſh, and Portugueſe. The Spaniards, as they firſt diſcovered it, have the largeſt and richeſt portion, extending from New Mexico and Louiſiana, in North America, to the ſtraits of Magellan in the South Sea, except the large province of Braſil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have ſome forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they ſcarcely deſerve to be conſidered as proprietors of any part of the ſouthern continent.

Next to Spain, the moſt conſiderable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America, from the firſt diſcovery of that continent, by Sebaſtian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about ſix-years after the diſcovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropiated ſolely to an iſland upon its coaſt. It was a long time before we made an attempt to ſettle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, firſt ſhewed the way by planting a colony in the ſouthern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his miſtreſs queen Elizabeth.

The French, indeed, from this period until the concluſion of the late war, laid a claim to, and actually poſſeſſed Canada and Louiſiana, comprehending all that extenſive inland country, reaching from Hudſon's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the ſame name on the ſouth: regions which all Europe could not people in the courſe of many ages: but no territory, however extenſive, no empire, however boundleſs, could gratify the ambition of that aſpiring nation; hence, under the moſt ſolemn treaties, they continued in a ſtate of hoſtility, making gradual advances upon the back of our ſettlements, and rendering their acquiſitions more ſecure and permanent by a chain of forts, well ſupplied with all the implements of war. At the ſame time they laboured inceſſantly to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, by various arts, even by intermarriages, and whom they

they not only trained to the uſe of arms, but infuſed into theſe ſavages the moſt unfavourable notions of the Engliſh. The Britiſh colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a ſlip of land along the ſea-coaſt, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britian, began in 1755 to take the alarm. The Britiſh empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total diſſolution. The colonies, in their diſtreſs, called out aloud to the mother-country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England, were ſent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and ably commanded. A long war ſucceeded, which ended gloriouſly for Great Britain: for after much blood was ſpilt, and every inch of ground bravely diſputed, the French were not only driven from Canada, and its dependencies, but obliged to relinquiſh all that part of Louiſiana, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſippi.

Thus at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of many brave men, our colonies were preſerved, ſecured, and extended ſo far, as to render it difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bouuds of our empire in North America, to the northern and weſtern ſides; for to the northward, it ſhould ſeem that we might have extended our claims quite to the pole itſelf, nor did any nation ſeem inclined to diſpute the property of this northernmoſt country with us. If we had choſen to take our ſtand upon the northern extremity, and look towards the ſouth, we had a territory extending in that aſpect, from the Pole to Cape Florida in the gulf of Mexico, North lat. 25, and conſequently near 4000 miles long, in a direct line; which was the more valuable, as it included the moſt temperate climates of this new world, and ſuch as are beſt ſuited to the Britiſh conſtitutions. But to the weſtward, our boundaries reached to the nations unknown even to the native Indians of Canada. If we might hazard a conjecture, it is nearly equal to the extent of all Europe. But our flattering proſpects reſpecting America, have been greatly abridged by the recent conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies, which, after eight yeats continuance, with a great expence of treaſure and blood, ended in their diſmemberment from the Britiſh empire, and in the eſtabliſhment of a new Republic, ſtyled "The thirteen United States of America." This country is waſhed by the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, and on the ſouth by the gulf of Mexico. We have already taken notice of the river St. Laurence, the Miſſiſippi, the lakes of Canada, and other great bodies of water, which fertilize and enrich its northern and weſtern boundaries, as well as the interior parts.

In deſcribing the ſituation, extent, and boundaries of the numerous colonies which now compoſe that great empire, we have totally rejected the accounts given us by partial French writers, as well as thoſe of Salmon and other Engliſh geographers, if men deſerve that name, who have wandered ſo widely from the truth, and who ſeem either unacquainted with the ſubject, or have been at no pains to conſult the lateſt and moſt authentic materials. This we thought neceſſary to premiſe, that the reader may be prepared for the following Tables, which he will find to differ widely from any book of geography hitherto publiſhed, being compoſed from the lateſt treaties, and partitions, and the beſt maps and drawings; the ſureſt guides in giving the geography of theſe important provinces.

The multitude of iſlands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among the Spaniards, Engliſh, and French. The Dutch indeed poſſeſs three or four ſmall iſlands, which, in any other hands, would be of no conſequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deſerve to be named among the proprietors of America. France is ſaid to have lately ceded the ſmall iſland of St. Bartholomew to Sweden. We ſhall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but as Labrador,

brador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudſon's Bay, with thoſe vaſt regions towards the pole, are little known, we can only include within the following Table, the colonies that have been formed into regular governments, which bring us to the 50th degree of north latitude.

A SUMMARY VIEW of the FIRST SETTLEMENTS of NORTH AMERICA.

Names of Places.	When ſettled.	By whom.
Quebec	1608	By the French.
Virginia	June 10, 1609	By Lord de la War.
Newfoundland	June 1610	By governor John Guy.
New York, New Jerſey	about 1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth	1620	By part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation.
New Hampſhire	1623	By a ſmall Engliſh colony near the mouth of Piſcataqua river.
Delawar, Pennſylvania	1627	By the Swedes and Fins.
Maſſachuſet's Bay	1628	By capt. John Endicot and company.
Maryland	1633	By lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman catholics.
Connecticut	1635	By Mr. Fenwickat Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Iſland	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams and his perſecuted brethren.
New Jerſey	1664	Granted to the duke of York by Charles II. and made a diſtinct government, and ſettled ſome time before this by the Engliſh.
South Carolina	1669	By governor Sale.
Pennſylvania	1682	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina	about 1728	Erected into a ſeparate government, ſettled before by the Engliſh.
Georgia	1732	By general Oglethorpe.
Kentucky	1773	By col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont	1777	By emigrants from Connecticut and other parts of New-England.
Territory N. W. of Ohio river	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The

The Grand Divifions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Length	Breadth	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dift. and bear. from London.	Belongs to
New Britain	850	750	218,750			Great Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland / New Brunfw.	350	250	57,000	Halifax / Shelburne		Ditto
New England	550	200	87,000	Boſton	2760 W.	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York		Ditto
New Jerſey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Pennſylvania	300	240	15,000	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamſburgh		Ditto
North Carolina / South Carolina / Georgia	700	380	110,000	Edenton / Charles-town / Savannah		Ditto / Ditto / Ditto
Eaſt Florida / Weſt Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Auguſtine / Penſacola		Spain / Ditto
Louiſiana	1200	645	516,000	New Orleans	4080 S. W.	Ditto
New Mexico and California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee / St. Juan	4420 S. W.	Ditto / Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	4900 S. W.	Ditto

The XIII United States — — — — 238,000 Sq. Miles

BRITISH POSSESSIONS in NORTH AMERICA, { Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunſwick — } 157,000 Sq. Miles.

Grand Divifions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Length	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Diſt. and bear. from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4650 S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	600	970,000	Lima	5520 S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam / Cayenne	3840 S. W.	Dutch / French
Brafil	2500	700	940,000	S. Sebaſtian	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Buen. Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain
Chili	1200	500	206,000	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	1400	460	325,000	The Spaniards took poſſeſſion of it, but did not think it worth while to ſettle there.		

The principal ISLANDS of NORTH AMERICA belonging to the EUROPEANS are,

	Islands.	Length	Bread.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
In the Gulf of St. Lawr.	Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	4,000	Louiſburg	Ditto
	St. John's	60	30	500	Charlotte-Town	Ditto
In the Atlan.	The Bermuda iſles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama iſles	very numerous			Naſſau	Ditto
In the Atlantic, between North and South America, lying in the Weſt India iſlands,	Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingſton	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Chriſtopher's	20	7	80	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montſerrat	each of theſe is 18 circum.			Charles-town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10	60		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13	150		Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingſton	Ditto
	Granada	30	15	150	St. George's	Ditto
	Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain
	Hiſpaniola	450	150	36,300	St. Domingo	Do. and France
	Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joſeph	Ditto
	Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto
	Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	France
	Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	23	12	90		Ditto
	Tobago	32	9	108		Ditto
	St. Bartholomew Deſeada, and Marigalanta	all of them inconſiderable.				Ditto * Ditto Ditto
	St. Euſtatia	29 circum.			The Bay	Dutch
	Curaſſou	30	10	342		Ditto
	St. Thomas	15 circum.				Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10		Baſſe End	Ditto

BRITISH ISLANDS in NORTH AMERICA and the WEST INDIES, = 46,930 Sq. Miles.

* Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

NEW

NEW BRITAIN.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 850 Breadth 750	between	50 and 70 north latitude 50 and 100 weſt longitude.	318,750.

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudſon's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen ſeas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean, on the Eaſt; by the Bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the South; and by unknown lands on the Weſt. Its length is computed at 850 miles, and 750 broad.

Mountains.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occaſion a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the ſame latitude.

Rivers, bays, straits, and capes.] Theſe are numerous and take their names generally from the Engliſh navigators and commanders by whom they were firſt diſcovered; the principal bay is that of Hudſon, which includes ſeveral others; the principal ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davis, and Belleiſle; and the chief rivers are the Mooſe, Severn, Rupert, Nelſon, and Black River.

Soil and produce.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudſon's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth is incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. Every kind of European ſeed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhoſpitable climate, has hitherto periſhed; but, perhaps, we have not tried the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweeden and Norway, which might be more congenial to the climate. All this ſeverity, and long continuance of winter, and the conſequent barrenneſs of the earth, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

Animals.] Theſe are the mooſe deer, ſtags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind they have geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, ninety thouſand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thouſand hares.

All the animals of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals; when that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is

a ſurpriſing phenomenon. But what is yet more ſurpriſing, and what is indeed one of the many ſtriking things, that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance farther in the deſcription of America, it may be proper to obſerve in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are leſs than thoſe of the old; even ſuch as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never ſeen to improve. If, with reſpect to ſize, we ſhould compare the animals of the new and the old world, we ſhall find the former greatly inferior to the latter. The Aſiatic elephant, for inſtance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, one of the largeſt natives of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which ſome alſo call the American camel, is ſtill leſs. Their beaſts of prey are quite diveſted of that courage, which is ſo often fatal to man in Africa or Aſia. They have no lions, nor, properly ſpeaking, either leopard, or tyger. Travellers, however, have affixed thoſe names to ſuch ravenous animals as are there found moſt to reſemble thoſe of the ancient continent. The conjar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them, are deſpicable in compariſon of the tyger, the leopard, and the panther of Aſia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to meaſure ſix feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tyger, as ſome affect to call it, ſeldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the ſouthern parts of America, are different from thoſe in the ſouthern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but thoſe which, being able to bear the colds of the North, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the ſtag, and the beaver, are known as well in New Britain and Canada as in Ruſſia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the ſouth with us, are utterly unknown in South America. But if the quadrupeds of America be ſmaller than thoſe of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wiſdom of the author of it, that the ſmalleſt animals multiply in the greateſt proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations, becomes much leſs; but then it alſo becomes more prolific, and inſtead of one kid at a time, or two at the moſt, generally produces five, ſix, and ſometimes more. The wiſdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the ſame degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would ſoon be unequal to the conteſt, and we ſhould ſoon perceive them become the tyrants of thoſe who call themſelves the maſters of the creation.

PERSONS AND HABITS.] The men of this country ſhew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themſelves, and in preſerving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where ſurrounds them, for the greateſt part of the year; in other reſpects they are very ſavage. They are of a tawny complexion, and lead a vagrant life, moving from place to place, ſpending their time in hunting and fiſhing. In their ſhapes and faces they do not reſemble the Americans who live to the ſouthward; they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe already deſcribed, from whom they are probably deſcended. Theſe on the coaſt appear to be peaceable and inoffenſive, and are dexterous in managing their kiacks or boats. The other Americans ſeem to be of a Tartar original.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of theſe northern ſeas and countries was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China and the Eaſt Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of diſcovery it ſeems manifeſt, that no practicable paſſage ever can be found. Frobiſher only diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, he ſtaid here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to purſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas, in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip and the reſt of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a diſcovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1746 captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and captain Chriſtopher attempted farther diſcoveries in 1761. But beſides theſe voyages, which ſatisfy us that we muſt not look for a paſſage on this ſide of the latitude 67 degrees North, we are indebted to the Hudſon's Bay Company for a journey by land; which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording, what may be called demonſtration, how much farther North, at leaſt in ſome parts of their voyage, ſhips muſt go, before they can paſs from one ſide of America to the other. The northern Indians, who come down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to the knowledge of our people a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper-mine river. The Company, being deſirous of examining into this matter with preciſion, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their ſervice, and who having been brought up for the navy and ſerved in it the war before laſt, was extremely well qualified for the purpoſe, to proceed over land, under the convoy of thoſe Indians, for that river; which he had orders to ſurvey, if poſſible, quite down to its exit into the ſea, to make obſervations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and the countries through which he ſhould paſs.

Accordingly Mr. Hearne ſet out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude 58° 47½′ North, and longitude 94° 7½′ Weſt from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of June reached the Copper-mine river, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the ſea, incumbered with ſhoals and falls, and emptying itſelf into it over a dry flat of the ſhore, the tide being then out, which ſeemed, by the edges of the ice, to riſe about 12 or 14 feet. This riſe, on account of the falls, carries the ſea but a very ſmall way within the river's mouth, ſo that the water in it had not the leaſt brackiſh taſte. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheleſs, ſure that it empties itſelf into the ſea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whalebone and ſeal ſkins which the Eſquimaux had at their tents; and alſo by the number of ſeals which he ſaw upon the ice. The ſea, at the river's mouth, was full of

iſlands

iſlands and ſhoals, as far as he could ſee, by the aſſiſtance of a pocket teleſcope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broken up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the ſhore, and for a little way round the iſlands and ſhoals. But he had the moſt extenſive view of the ſea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which ſtation the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finiſhed his ſurvey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and ſea, in every reſpect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unneceſſary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by obſervation; but by extraordinary care he took in obſerving the courſes and diſtances, walked from *Congecathawhachaza*, where he had two very good obſervations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within 20′ at the utmoſt. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne conſtructed of this ſingular journey, that the mouth of the Copper-mine river lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill river; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper-mine river to Churchill laſted till June 30th, 1772; ſo that he was abſent almoſt a year and ſeven months. The unparalleled hardſhips he ſuffered, and the eſſential ſervice he performed, have met with a ſuitable reward from his maſters. He has been ſeveral years governor of Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, where he was taken priſoner by the French in 1782; and, after the peace in 1783, he returned to his ſtation.

The conſequences reſulting from this extenſive diſcovery are obvious. We now ſee that the continent of North America ſtretches from Hudſon's Bay, ſo far to the North-Weſt, that Mr. Hearne travelled near 1300 miles before he arrived at the ſea; and that the whole of his track to the northward of 61° of North latitude, lay near 600 miles due Weſt of the weſtern coaſt of Hudſon's Bay, at the ſame time that his Indian guides were well aware of a vaſt track of land, ſtretching farther in the ſame direction. Futile, therefore, are the arguments of thoſe, who, about 40 years ago, ſtickled ſo much for a North-weſt paſſage through Hudſon's Bay.

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not conſiſt of above nine or ten perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to themſelves. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted, not to ſay iniquitous ſpirit, has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ four ſhips, and 130 ſeamen. They have ſeveral forts, viz. Prince of Wales's fort, Churchill river, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay, and are garriſoned by 186 men. The French in May 1782, took and deſtroyed theſe forts, and the ſettlements, &c. valued at 500,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. This commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their ſkins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent, of which we have the greateſt plenty, and which, in the mercantile phraſe, are drugs with us. Though the workmanſhip too happens to be in many reſpects ſo deficient,

deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs we bring from Hudſon's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. Theſe circumſtances tend to prove inconteſtibly the immenſe benefit that would redound to Great Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudſon's Bay, ſince even in its preſent reſtrained ſtate it is ſo advantageous. This company, it is probable, do not find their trade ſo advantageous now as it was before we got poſſeſſion of Canada. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fiſhery. Great Britain has no ſettlement here, though the annual produce of the fiſhery, amounting to upwards of 49,000l. and the natural advantages of the country, ſhould encourage us to ſet about this deſign.

CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 Breadth 200	between	61 and 81 weſt longitude. 45 and 52 north latitude.	100,000.

BOUNDARIES.] THE French comprehended, under the name of Canada, a very large territory, taking into their claim part of Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the Eaſt; and, to the Weſt, extending it as far as the Pacific Ocean. That part, however, which they had been able to cultivate, and which bore the face of a colony, lay chiefly upon the banks of the river St. Laurence, and the numerous ſmall rivers falling into that ſtream. This being reduced by the Britiſh arms in the war of 1756, was formed into a Britiſh colony, called the Province of Quebec, which is now bounded by New Britain and Hudſon's Bay on the North and Eaſt; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the South, and by unknown lands on the Weſt.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this extenſive province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the ſea, and more northerly than a great part of theſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like moſt of the American tracts that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot and exceedingly pleaſant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence and other rivers, are remarkable for fertility. The meadow-grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of wood and animals that

are found in theſe colonies, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them here at ſome length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greateſt foreſts in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing is more magnificent to the ſight; the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds; and there is ſuch a prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even among thoſe perſons who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are deſcribing produces, amongſt others, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar, and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three ſorts of aſh-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty perſons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over the ſeams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are alſo found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton tree, on the top of which grow ſeveral tufts of flowers, which, when ſhaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into ſugar, the ſeed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the ſun-plant, which reſembles a marigold, and grows to the height of ſeven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in ſome of the mountains, we are told ſilver has been found, though we have not heard any great advantage made of it as yet. This country alſo abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Deſprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all ſwallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river iſſues from the lake Ontario, and, taking its courſe north-eaſt, waſhes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile iſlands. It continues the ſame courſe, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the ſea, where it is navigable for large veſſels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the ſea, it becomes broad, and ſo deep, that ſhips of the line contributed, in the laſt war, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progreſs innumerable ſtreams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Roſieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intenſe, and the ſea boiſterous. In its progreſs it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleaſant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the French (now ſubjects of Great Britain) have ſettlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity it is not improbable that Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, will be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water, which theſe countries environ. Here are five lakes, the ſmalleſt of which is a piece of ſweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not leſs than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie,

or Oſwego, longer but not ſo broad, is about the ſame extent. That of the Huron ſpreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not leſs than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like the lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains ſeveral large iſlands, is 500 leagues in circuit. All of theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the paſſage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a ſtupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock croſſes it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can expreſs the conſternation of travellers at ſeeing ſo great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from ſo great a height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as ſnow, being all converted into foam, through thoſe violent agitations. The noiſe of this fall is often heard at the diſtance of 15 miles, and ſometimes much farther. The vapour ariſing from the fall may ſometimes be ſeen at a great diſtance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of ſmoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the ſun and the poſition of the traveller favours. Many beaſts and fowls here loſe their lives, by attempting to ſwim, or croſs the ſtream in the rapids above the fall, and are found daſhed in pieces below; and ſometimes the Indians through careleſſneſs or drunkenneſs, have met with the ſame fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by ſuch a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already obſerved, is the outlet of theſe lakes; by this they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. The French, when in poſſeſſion of the province, built forts at the ſeveral ſtraits, by which theſe lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the laſt of them communicates with the river. By theſe they effectually ſecured to themſelves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] Theſe make the moſt curious, and hitherto the moſt intereſting part of the natural hiſtory of Canada. It is to the ſpoils of theſe that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and moſt of the commerce as yet carried on between us and that province. The animals that find ſhelter and nouriſhment in the immenſe foreſts of Canada, and which indeed traverſe the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, ſquirrels of a large ſize and greyiſh hue, hares, and rabbits. The ſouthern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marſhes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, ſwarm with otters, beavers or caſtors, of which the white are highly valued, being ſcarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though reſembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the moſt curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The ſavages, who waged continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in ſociety, and was governed by a leader, reſembling their own ſachem or prince. It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and ſeverity of it, are ſufficient to ſhew the near approaches of inſtinct to reaſon, and even in ſome

inſtances the ſuperiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw-colour; but it is obſerved, that the lighter their colour, the leſs quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the green are the furs that are worn, after being ſewed to one another, by the Indians, who beſmear them with unctuous ſubſtances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down, that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and Engliſh have of late found the ſecret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and ſtockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Beſides the fur, this uſeful animal produces the true caſtoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the teſticles: the value of this drug is well known. The fleſh of the beaver is a moſt delicious food, but when boiled, it has a diſagreeable reliſh.

The muſk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or ſix pounds), which it reſembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very ſtrong muſk.

The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly that of curing the falling-ſickneſs, are aſcribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light-grey and dark-red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his cloaths to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail. It is ſaid, that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſting his ſtrong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the ſame appearance with thoſe of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly eſteemed. The fleſh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are ſoft and pliable as chamois leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the bucklers which the Indians make uſe of are hardly penetrable by a muſket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domeſtic animal. Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country: their fleſh is white, and good to eat; and they purſue their prey to the tops of the talleſt trees. The black foxes are greatly eſteemed, and very ſcarce; but thoſe of other colours are more common; and ſome on the upper Miſſiſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy with their clutches by a thouſand antic tricks, and then ſpring upon, and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a moſt beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the ſmell of which is nauſeous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it ſprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the aſſailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a buſhy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and in that ſhe places her young when purſued. Here are three ſorts of ſquirrels; that called the flying-ſquirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree

tree to another. This little animal is eaſily tamed, and is very lively; he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's ſleeve, pocket, or muff; he firſt pitches on his maſter, whom he will diſtinguiſh among twenty perſons. The Canadian porcupine is leſs than a middling dog; when roaſted he eats full as well as a ſucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two ſorts of bears here, one of a reddiſh, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the moſt dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unleſs when wounded, or oppreſſed with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July, when it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them; and they are ſaid to ſupport themſelves during the winter, when the ſnow lies from four to ſix feet deep, by ſucking their paws. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after than that of one who has rendered himſelf famous in war. The reaſon is, becauſe this chace ſupplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goſhawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance; woodcocks are ſcarce in Canada, but ſnipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is ſaid by ſome writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, ſwallows, and larks; no leſs than twenty-two different ſpecies of ducks, and a great number of ſwans, turkeys, geeſe, buſtards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large waterfowl; but always at a diſtance from houſes. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thruſhes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very ſhowy, and remarkable for announcing the return of ſpring. The fly-bird is thought to be the moſt beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noiſe with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-ſnake only deſerves attention. Some of theſe are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is moſt remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is ſcaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is ſaid there grows every year one ring, or row of ſcales; ſo that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horſe by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noiſe, from which it has its name. The bite of this ſerpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-ſnake herb, the root of which (ſuch is the goodneſs of Providence) is a certain antidote againſt the venom of this ſerpent, and that with the moſt ſimple preparation, for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaſter to the wound. The rattle-ſnake ſeldom bites paſſengers, unleſs it is provoked; and never darts itſelf at any perſon without firſt rattling three times with its tail. When purſued, if it has but little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itſelf with great fury and violence againſt its purſuers: nevertheleſs, the ſavages chace it, and find its fleſh very good; and being alſo of a medicinal quality, it is uſed by the American apothecaries in particular caſes.

Some writers are of opinion that the fiſheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greateſt variety of any in the world, and theſe in the greateſt plenty and of the beſt ſorts.

Beſides a great variety of other fiſh in the rivers and lakes, are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea-plaiſe, ſalmon, trout, turtle,

lobſters, the chaouraſou, ſturgeon, the achigau; the gilthead, tunny, trout, turtle, prey, ſmelts, conger-eels, mackarel, ſoals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largeſt are ſaid to weigh two thouſand pounds; their fleſh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and currying of leather; their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better, and are leſs liable to cracks. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covers for ſeats. The Canadian ſea-cow is larger than the ſea-wolf, but reſembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, which, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoiſes of the river St. Laurence are ſaid to yield a hogſhead of oil; and of their ſkins waiſt coats are made, which are muſket proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle-fiſh, quite round, or rather oval; there are three ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize; ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the laſt, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſea-plaiſe is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaouraſou is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; but is covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger: its colour is a ſilver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the feathered creation, which this fiſh does, however, with much art. He conceals himſelf among the canes and reeds, and in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his weapon, which he holds raiſed perpendicularly above the ſurface of the water: the fowls, which come to take reſt, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh opens his throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden motion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes him. This fiſh is an inhabitant of the lakes. The ſturgeon is both a freſh and ſalt water fiſh, taken on the coaſts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a ſmall kind of ſturgeon, the fleſh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from thoſe of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vaſtly populous; but we cannot preciſely determine the number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increaſe. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were ſuppoſed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants *. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; but theſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. But as liberty is the ruling paſſion of the Indians, we may naturally ſuppoſe that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more diſtant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a cenſus of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 Engliſh and French, excluſive of 10,000 loyaliſts ſettled in the upper parts of the province.

of ſtate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants are computed at about 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite to the town, is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathom deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in ſailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemen's houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony, but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well-ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richlieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood in the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who, by means of theſe rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins. The country is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides the rivers.

Montreal ſtands on an iſland in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. While the French had poſſeſſion of Canada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well, that the whole iſland was become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well-formed ſtreets; and when taken by the Engliſh, the houſes were built in a very handſome manner; and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide of which the town ſtands falls gradually to the water. This place is ſurrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it hath ſuffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their rights and privileges.

It was enacted by parliament in the year 1774, that it ſhould be lawful for his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, by warrant under his or their ſignet or ſign manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to conſtitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to conſiſt of ſuch perſons reſident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor leſs than ſeventeen, as his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, ſhall be pleaſed to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or abſence of any

any of the members of the ſaid council, in like manner to conſtitute and appoint others to ſucceed them. And this council, ſo appointed and nominated, or the majority of them, are veſted with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the conſent of the governor, or in his abſence of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not impowered to lay taxes, except for the purpoſe of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or ſuch local conveniencies. By this act, all matters of controverſy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to have force in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are alſo allowed by this act not only to profeſs the Romiſh religion, but the Popiſh clergy are inveſted with a right to claim their accuſtomed dues from thoſe of the ſame religion.

This act, however equitable and laudable, occaſioned a great alarm both in England and America, and appears to have contributed much towards ſpreading a ſpirit of diſaffection to the Britiſh government in the colonies. The city of London petitioned againſt the bill before it received the royal aſſent; declaring, that they apprehended it to be entirely ſubverſive of the great fundamental principles of the Britiſh conſtitution, as well as of the authority of various ſolemn acts of the legiſlature. And in one of the petitions of the American congreſs to the king, they complained, that by the Quebec act, "the limits of that province were extended, the Engliſh laws aboliſhed, and the French laws reſtored, whereby great numbers of Britiſh freemen were ſubjected to the latter; and that an abſolute government, and the Roman catholic religion, were alſo eſtabliſhed by that act, throughout thoſe vaſt regions, that border on the weſterly and northerly boundaries of the free Proteſtant Engliſh ſettlements."

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] By expelling the French from the back of our then ſettlements, we ſecured them from the danger of being moleſted or attacked by an active and formidable enemy, and enabled our people to attend, with proper ſpirit and induſtry, to agriculture, and the improvements of that country. While the important conqueſt of Canada removed a rival power from that part of North America, it put us in the ſole poſſeſſion of the fur and peltry trade, the uſe and importance of which are well known to the manufacturers of Great Britain.

The nature of the climate, ſeverely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, ſhews what Canada principally wants from Europe, wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarſe linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was poſſeſſed by the French, the Indians ſupplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and among nations entirely unknown to us. Theſe again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion, many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governor attended to preſerve order, in ſuch a concourſe, and with ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great diſorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable, that many of theſe nations actually paſſed by our ſettlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 250 miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchaſed

chaſed the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of theſe ſavages!

Since we became poſſeſſed of Canada, our trade with that country is computed to employ about 60 ſhips and 1000 ſeamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to 105,500l. Their imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the ſame ſun. It is unneceſſary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only ſupplies us with unmanufactured materials, indiſpenſably neceſſary in many articles of our commerce, but alſo takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies *.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be impoſſible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural cauſes; I mean the ſeverity of the winter, which is ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep on the ground, even in thoſe parts of the country which are three degrees ſouth of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience ariſes from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, which render it difficult for very large ſhips to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but veſſels from 300 to 400 tons arrive there annually. Our communication therefore with Canada, and the immenſe regions beyond it, will always be interrupted during the winter ſeaſon, until roads are formed, that can be travelled with ſafety. For it may be here obſerved, that the Indians often commence hoſtilities againſt us, without any provocation, and commit the moſt horrid ravages. But when at laſt their barbarities have rouſed the ſtrength of our people, they are not aſhamed to beg a peace: they know we always grant it readily; they promiſe it ſhall endure as long as the ſun and moon; and then all is quiet till ſome incident, too often co-operating with ill uſage received from our traders, gives them a freſh opportunity of renewing their cruelties.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NOVA SCOTIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 350 Breadth 250	between	43 and 49 north latitude. 60 and 67 weſt longitude.		57,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic ocean, Eaſt; by the ſame ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, Weſt. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*.

The province and government, now ſtyled NEW BRUNSWICK, is bounded on the weſtward of the mouth of the river St. Croix, by that river to its ſource, and by

* The amount of the exports from this province, in the year 1786, was 343,263l. Amount of imports the ſame year was 325,116l.

a line

a line drawn due north from thence to the ſouthern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by that boundary as far as the weſtern extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eaſtward by the ſaid bay to the gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte, to the ſouth by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix to the mouth of the Muſquat River, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and from thence by a due eaſt line acroſs the iſthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eaſtern lot above deſcribed, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Riſgouche and Nipiſiguit run from weſt to eaſt, and fall into the bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Paſſamagnadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix, which run from north to ſouth, fall into Fundy Bay, or the ſea a little to the eaſtward of it.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The ſeas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy Bay, and the gulf of St. Laurence. The leſſer bays are, Chenigto and Green Bay upon the iſthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the ſouth; and the Bay of Chaleurs on the north-eaſt; the bay of Chedibucto on the ſouth-eaſt; the bay of the Iſlands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Proſper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Roſignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the ſouth; port La Tour, on the ſouth-eaſt; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the ſouth ſide of Fundy Bay, and port Roſeway, now the moſt populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port and Epis, on the eaſt. Cape Fogeri, and Cape Canceau, on the ſouth-eaſt. Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the ſouth. Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche, on the ſouth-weſt.

LAKES.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European conſtitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intenſely cold. But though the cold in winter and the heat in ſummer are great, they come on gradually, ſo as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From ſuch an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, was, till lately, almoſt a continued foreſt; and agriculture, though attempted by the Engliſh ſettlers, has hitherto made little progreſs. In moſt parts the ſoil is thin and barren, the corn it produces, of a ſhrivelled kind like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpungy moſs. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninſula to the ſouthward, which do not yield to the beſt land in New England; and, in general, the ſoil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ſhip-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new ſettlements and the bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land hath been cleared which abounds in timber, and ſhip-loads of excellent maſts and ſpars have been ſhipped for England.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the cloſe of March, the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valu-

able

able appendage of New Scotland, is the Cape Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his ſecretary ſir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh till the peace of Utrecht, and their deſign in acquiring it does not ſeem to have ſo much ariſen from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other ſettlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were tranſported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement. The town of Halifax ſtands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war lies during the winter, and in ſummer puts to ſea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fiſhery, and to ſee that the articles of the peace, relating thereto, are duly obſerved by the French. The town has an entrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. Three regiments of men are ſtationed in it to protect the inhabitants from the Indians, whoſe reſentment, however excited or fomented, has been found implacable againſt the Engliſh. The number of inhabitants is ſaid to be 15 or 16,000, who live very comfortably by the trade they carry on in furs and naval ſtores, by their fiſheries, and by ſupplying the wants of the governor and the garriſon already mentioned.

The other towns of leſs note are Annapolis Royal, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Fundy, and though but a ſmall wretched place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the fineſt harbours in America, capable of containing a thouſand veſſels at anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity. This place is alſo protected by a fort and garriſon. St. John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy on the weſt ſide. Since the concluſion of the American war, the emigration of loyaliſts to this province from the United States, hath been very great. By them new towns have been raiſed, but particularly at Port Roſeway, where is now a city named *Shelburne*, which extends two miles on the water ſide, and one mile back, with wide ſtreets croſſing each other at right angles. It is ſaid to have above 9000 inhabitants, excluſive of what is ſtyled the *Black Town* (containing 1200 free blacks, who ſerved on the royal ſide during the war), which ſtands about a mile from Shelburne, and ſeparated from it by a ſmall freſh-water river. The harbour here is deep, capacious, and ſecure, and the tide hath a great riſe and fall. Such of the loyaliſts as apply for lands have in proportion to the property they poſſeſſed before the troubles in America commenced, allowing for ſuch as have large families to provide for. And it is ſaid that the new appointed governor of New Brunſwick has it in his inſtructions to "grant, without fee or reward, to ſuch reduced officers as ſerved in provincial corps during the late war in North America, and ſhall perſonally apply for the ſame, the following quantities of lands, ſubject at the expiration of ten years to the ſame quit rents as other lands are ſubject in the province of Nova Scotia, as alſo

ſubject to the ſame conditions of cultivation and improvement. To every perſon having the rank of a field officer, three thouſand acres; to every captain two thouſand acres; and to every ſubaltern one thouſand acres." The reduced officers of the navy are entitled to land in the ſame proportion.

The exports from Great Britain to this country conſiſt chiefly of woollen and linen cloth, and other neceſſaries for wear, of fiſhing tackle, and rigging for ſhips. The amount of our exports, at an average of three years, before the new ſettlements, was about 26,500 l. The only articles we can get in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fiſhery, which, at a like average, amounts to 38,000 l. But from the late increaſe of inhabitants, it is ſuppoſed that they will now erect ſaw-mills, and endeavour to ſupply the Weſt India iſlands with lumber of every kind, as well as with the produce of the fiſhery, which will be a profitable article to both countries. The whole population of Nova Scotia and the iſland adjoining is eſtimated at 50,000. Recent accounts of theſe ſettlements repreſent them at preſent in a declining ſtate, great numbers of the houſes in the new towns being uninhabited, and conſiderably reduced in value.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

OF the riſe, progreſs, and moſt remarkable events of the war between Great Britain and her American colonies, abetted by France, which at length terminated in the eſtabliſhment of the "United States of America," we have already given an account, in our view of the principal tranſactions in the hiſtory of Great Britain. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority, of the inhabitants of the united colonies of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's Bay, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia, they declared, that they then were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; and that, as ſuch, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts which independent ſtates may of right do. They alſo publiſhed articles of confederation, and perpetual union, between the colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendſhip for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themſelves to aſſiſt each other againſt all violence that might threaten all, or any one of them, and to repel, in common, all the attacks that might be levelled againſt all, or any one of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatſoever. Each of the colonies reſerved to themſelves alone, the excluſive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws on all matters not included in the articles of confederation.

But for the more convenient management of the general intereſts of the United States, it was determined, that delegates ſhould be annually appointed in ſuch manner

ner as the legiſlature of each ſtate ſhould direct, to meet in congreſs on the firſt Monday of November of every year, with a power reſerved to each ſtate to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to ſend others in their ſtead, for the remainder of the year. No ſtate is to be repreſented in congreſs by leſs than two, nor more than ſeven members; and no perſon is capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of ſix years; nor is any perſon being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, ſhall receive any ſalary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining queſtions in the United States, in congreſs aſſembled, each ſtate is to have one vote. Every ſtate is to abide by the determinations of the United States in congreſs aſſembled, on all queſtions which are ſubmitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation are to be inviolably obſerved by every ſtate, and the union is to be perpetual; nor is any alteration, at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unleſs ſuch alteration be agreed to in a congreſs of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legiſlature of every ſtate.

It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent ſtates. Holland acknowledged them as ſuch April 19th, 1782; and on the 30th of November, 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned at Paris, by the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, in which his Britannic majeſty acknowledged the thirteen colonies to be Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and theſe articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as ſuch February 5th, 1783; Denmark, the 25th February; Spain, in March, and Ruſſia, in July 1783.

According to the report of the committee appointed for that purpoſe, *the Foreign Debt* of the United States incurred by the late war for obtaining their independence, amounted to 7,885,085 dollars, and the *Domeſtic Debt* to 34,115,290; total, at 4s. 6d. each, equal to 9,450,084 l. ſterling, the intereſt of which at 6 *per cent.* is 567,005 l. But the coſt of the war to Great Britain is moderately computed at 115,654,914 l. and the additional annual burden by it 4,557,575 l. ſince January 1775. As to the loſs of men during the unhappy war, the ſtates of America, according to authentic eſtimates, loſt by the ſword and in priſon near 80,000 men; and by the Britiſh returns at New York, the number of ſoldiers killed in the ſervice amounted to 43,633.

The following Calculations were made from actual Meaſurement of the beſt Maps, by THOMAS HUTCHINS, *Eſq. Geographer to the United States.*

The territory of the United States contains by computation a million of ſquare miles, in which are	-	-	640,000,000 of acres.
Deduct for water	-	-	51,000,000
Acres of land in the United States	-	-	589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the weſt temporary line of Pennſylvania on the eaſt, the boundary line between Britain and the United States extending from the river St. Croix to the north-weſt extremity of the Lake of the Woods on the North, the river Miſſiſſipi to the mouth of the Ohio on the weſt, and the river Ohio on the ſouth to the aforementioned bounds of Pennſylvania,

nia, contains by computation about four hundred and eleven thouſand ſquare miles, in which are - - - - 263,040,000 of acres.

Deduct for water - - -	43,040,000
To be diſpoſed of by order of Congreſs -	220,000,000

The whole of this immenſe extent of unappropriated weſtern territory, containing, as above ſtated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the ceſſion of ſome of the original Thirteen States, and by the treaty of peace transferred to the fœderal government, and is pledged as a fund for ſinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new ſtates, with republican conſtitutions ſimilar to the old ſtates near the Atlantic ocean.

Eſtimate of the Number of Acres of Water, north and weſtward of the River Ohio, within the Territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior - - - -	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods - - - -	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c. - - -	165,200
Red Lake - - - -	551,000
Lake Michigan - - - -	10,368,000
Bay Puan - - - -	1,216,000
Lake Huron - - - -	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair - - - -	89,500
Lake Erie, weſtern part - - -	2,252,800
Sundry ſmall lakes and rivers - - -	301,000
	43,040,000

Eſtimate of the Number of Acres of Water within the Thirteen United States.

In Lake Erie, weſtward of the line extended from the north-weſt corner of Pennſylvania, due north to the boundary between the Britiſh territory and the United States - - -	410,000	
In Lake Ontario - - -	2,390,000	
Lake Champlain - - -	500,000	
Cheſapeak Bay - - -	1,700,000	
Albemarle Bay - - - -	330,000	
Delawar Bay - - - -	630,000	
All the rivers within the thirteen ſtates including the Ohio - - -	2,000,000	
		7,950,000
Total —		51,000,000

NEW

NEW ENGLAND.

Situation and extent.

Miles.			Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	550	between	41 and 49 north latitude.	87,000.
Breadth	200		67 and 74 weſt longitude.	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED on the North-Eaſt by Nova Scotia; on the Weſt, by Canada; on the South, by New York; and on the Eaſt by the Atlantic.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The northern diviſion, or government	New Hampſhire ——	Portſmouth
The middle diviſion —	Maſſachuſet's Colony	Boston, N. Lat. 42-25. W. Lon. 70-37.
The ſouth diviſion ——	Rhode Iſland, &c.	Newport
The weſt diviſion ——	Connecticut ——	New London Hertford.

Rivers.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piſcataway; 6. Saco; 7. Caſco; 8. Kinebeque; and 9. Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

Bays and capes.] The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations; Monument-Bay; Weſt-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod, Boſton-harbour; Piſcataway; and Caſco-Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape-Cod, Marble-Head, Cape-Anne, Cape-Netic, Cape-Porpus, Cape-Elizabeth, and Cape-Small-Point.

Air and climate.] New England, though ſituate almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than the mother-country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more ſevere than with us. The ſummer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the ſame latitude. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boiſterous in the winter ſeaſon, and naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, the length and ſeverity of the winter, to the large freſh-water lakes lying on the north-weſt of New England, which being frozen over ſeveral months, occaſion thoſe piercing winds, which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The ſun riſes at Boſton, on the longeſt day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at 34 minutes after ſeven in the evening; and on the ſhorteſt day, it riſes at 35 minutes after ſeven in the morning, and ſets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

Soil and produce.] We have already obſerved, that the lands lying on the eaſtern ſhore of America are low, and in ſome parts ſwampy, but farther back they riſe into hills. In New England, towards the north-eaſt, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The ſoil here is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. Round Maſſachuſet's bay the ſoil is black, and ſaid to be as rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above a yard high. The uplands are leſs fruitful, being for the moſt part a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and paſture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs; the wheat is ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flouriſhes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower ſort of people. They likewiſe malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table-drink is cyder and ſpruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of molaſſes. They likewiſe raiſe in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ſingle apple-tree has produced ſeven barrels of cyder in one ſeaſon.

But New England is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs, beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and other woods uſed in dying or tanning leather, carpenter's work, and ſhip-building. The oaks here are ſaid to be inferior to thoſe of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furniſhed the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. They draw from their trees conſiderable quantities of pitch, tar, reſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil produces hemp and flax. A ſhip may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their foreſts; and indeed ſhip building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade.

Metals.] Rich iron mines, of a moſt excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

Animals.] The animals of this country furniſh many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horſes of New England are hardy, mettleſome, and ſerviceable, but ſmaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few ſheep; and the wool, though of a ſtaple ſufficiently long, is not near ſo fine as that of England. Here are alſo elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkies, minks, martens, raccons, ſabbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the moſt ſingular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moſe or mooſe deer, of which there are two ſorts; the common light grey mooſe, which reſembles the ordinary deer; theſe herd ſometimes thirty together: and the large black mooſe, whoſe body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's, and his fleſh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have ſhoots or branches to each horn, which generally ſpread about ſix feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way: and theſe prodigious horns are ſhed every year. This animal does not ſpring or riſe in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been ſeen to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a courſe

of

of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but when chaſed, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geeſe, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, ſwans, heathcocks, herons, ſtorks, blackbirds, all ſorts of barn-door fowl, vaſt flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain ſeaſons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattleſnakes, frogs, and toads, which ſwarm in the uncleared parts of theſe countries, where, with the owls, they make a moſt hideous noiſe in the ſummer evenings.

The ſeas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fiſh, and even whales of ſeveral kinds, ſuch as the whalebone whale, the ſpermaceti whale, which yields ambergris, the fin-backed whale, the ſcrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and ſend beſides ſome ſhips every year to fiſh for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland iſlands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with ſtrong teeth and jaws, perſecutes the whale in theſe ſeas; but, afraid of his monſtrous ſtrength, they ſeldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobſcot, there is a mackrel fiſhery; they likewiſe fiſh for cod in winter, which they dry in the froſt.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } There is not one of the colonies which can be compared in the abundance of people, the number of conſiderable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts of the mother-country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach above ſixty miles back. There are here many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates; but the greateſt part of the people is compoſed of a ſubſtantial yeomanry, who cultivate their own freeholds, without a dependence upon any but Providence and their own induſtry. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the way of gavelkind: which keeps them from ever emerging out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary ſort ſo independent, or poſſeſs more of the conveniencies of life; they are uſed from their infancy to the exerciſe of arms; and before the conteſt with the mother-country, they had a militia, which was by no means contemptible; but their military ſtrength is now much more conſiderable. The population of the four provinces, of which New England is comprized, was proportioned by Douglas, ſome years paſt, as follows:

		But in 1783
Maſſachuſet's bay	- - -	200,000 — 350,000
Connecticut	- - -	100,000 — 206,000
Rhode Iſland	- - -	30,000 — 50,400
New Hampſhire	- -	24,000 — 82,200

Thus the number ſince his time has ſo greatly increaſed, that the four provinces now contain nearly 700,000 ſouls, including a ſmall number of negroes and Indians.

Connecticut is ſaid, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every ſtate of America in populouſneſs and plenty. The men, in general, throughout the province, are robuſt, ſtout, and tall. The greateſt care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept ſtraight by means of a board; a practice learnt of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; ſo that deformity is here a rarity. The women are fair, handſome, and genteel, and modeſt and reſerved in their manners and behaviour. They are not permitted to read plays, nor can they converſe

about

about whiſt, quadrille, or operas; but it is ſaid that they will talk freely upon the ſubjects of hiſtory, geography, and other literary ſubjects. The inhabitants of Connecticut are extremely hoſpitable to ſtrangers.

RELIGION.] The church of England, in this part of America, is far from being in a flouriſhing condition; in ſeveral places, the number of auditors do not amount to twelve perſons. In the year 1768, the four provinces contained upwards of 700 religious aſſemblies; of which 36 only obſerved the forms of the church of England. Every particular ſociety among them is independent of all other eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction; nor does there lie any appeal from their puniſhments or cenſures. The miniſters of Boſton depend entirely on the generoſity of their hearers for ſupport; a voluntary contribution being made for them, by the congregation, every time divine ſervice is celebrated. It is not long ſince they ſuffered any member of the church of England to have a ſhare in the magiſtracy, or to be elected a member of the Commons, or houſe of Repreſentatives. Their laws againſt quakers were formerly very ſevere, that ſect giving the firſt ſettlers and government great uneaſineſs and diſturbance. To bring one in was a forfeiture of 100l. to conceal one 40s. an hour, to go to a quaker's meeting 10s. to preach there 5s. If a quaker was not an inhabitant, he was ſubject to baniſhment, and if he returned, death; but theſe and ſome other ſevere eccleſiaſtical laws are now repealed, in conſequence of the diffuſion of more humane and equitable principles. Calviniſm, from the principles of the firſt ſettlers, hath been very prevalent in New England, many of the inhabitants alſo formerly obſerved the ſabbath with a kind of Jewiſh rigour; but their bigotry of late hath been much diminiſhed. Since their independence, there is no one eſtabliſhed religion in the province, but every ſect is allowed the free exerciſe of his own, and is equally under the protection of the laws *. The Connecticut province hath alſo provided a biſhop for the Epiſcopalians among them, by ſending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring biſhops of the epiſcopal church in that kingdom, which ceremony was performed at Aberdeen.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boſton, the capital of New England, ſtands on a peninſula at the bottom of Maſſachuſet's bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are ſeveral rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen ſmall iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited. There is but one ſafe channel to approach the harbour, and that ſo narrow, that two ſhips can ſcarcely ſail through abreaſt; but within the harbour there is room for 500 ſail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the iſlands of the bay ſtands Fort William, the moſt regular fortreſs in all the plantations. This caſtle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, ſo that it is ſcarcely poſſible for an enemy to paſs the caſtle. To prevent ſurpriſe, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues diſtance, from whence they make ſignals to the caſtle, when any ſhips come near it. There is alſo a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north ſide, extends a row of warehouſes for the merchants, and to this pier, ſhips of the greateſt burden may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greateſt part of the town lies round the harbour, in the ſhape of a half moon; the country beyond it riſing gradually, and affording a delightful proſpect from the ſea. The head of the pier joins the principal ſtreet of the town, which is like moſt of the others, ſpacious and well built. Boſton contains at preſent about 18,000

* By a late account there are 400 Independent and Preſbyterian churches in this province, 84 Baptiſts, and 31 of other denominations.

inha-

inhabitants; fifty years ago they were more numerous. The ſurpriſing increaſe of Newbury port, Salem, Marblehead, Cape Anne, Plymouth, Dartmouth, and the iſland of Nantucket, hath checked the growth and trade of the capital. The trade of Boſton was, however, ſo very conſiderable, that, in the year 1768, 1200 ſail entered or cleared at the Cuſtom-houſe there. Both the town and trade of Boſton greatly ſuffered during the war with Great Britain; but ſince, the trade of Boſton has again conſiderably increaſed.

Cambridge, in the ſame province, four miles from Boſton, has an univerſity, containing two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Havard college, and Stoughton Hall, with a well-furniſhed library. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, a treaſurer, three profeſſors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was firſt granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony ſeal.

The other towns in New England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiouſly ſituated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The trade of New England is great, as it ſupplies a large quantity of goods from within itſelf; but it is yet greater, as the people of this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and even for ſome parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields are principally pig and bar iron, which were imported to Great Britain duty-free; alſo maſts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl aſhes, ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, which they ſent to the French and Dutch ſugar iſlands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other Britiſh iſles, as grain, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel and cod-fiſh dried. They likewiſe ſend thither cattle, horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe-ſtaves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-ſkins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very conſiderable. They have a moſt valuable fiſhery upon their coaſts in mackarel and cod, which employs vaſt numbers of their people; with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and Weſt Indies, to a conſiderable amount. Their whale-fiſhery has been already mentioned. The arts moſt neceſſary to ſubſiſtence, are thoſe which the inhabitants of New England have been at the greateſt pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe; hats are made here, which find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar-baking, diſtilling, paper-making, and ſalt-works, are upon the improving hand. The buſineſs of ſhip building is one of the moſt conſiderable, which Boſton, Newbury, and the other ſea-port towns in New England carry on. Ships are ſometimes built here upon commiſſion; but frequently the merchants of New England have them conſtructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval ſtores, fiſh, and fiſh oil principally, they ſend them out upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having diſpoſed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until ſuch time as they can ſell the veſſel herſelf to advantage, which they ſeldom fail to do in a reaſonable time.

It was computed, that, before the late revolution, the value of Engliſh manufactures, and India goods ſent into this colony from Great Britain, amounted, at an average of three years to 395,000 l. Our imports from the ſame were calculated at 370,500 l.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] New England is at preſent divided into the four provinces of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſet's, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, king James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a

power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts, then comprehended under the name of Virginia. No ſettlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themſelves with ſending out ſome ſhips to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh upon their coaſt. This continued to be the only ſort of correſpondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious diſſentions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbiſhop Laud perſecuted all ſorts of nonconformiſts with an unrelenting ſeverity. Thoſe men, on the other hand, were ready to ſubmit to all the rigour of perſecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they conſidered as abuſes of a moſt dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, in order to obtain liberty of conſcience. America opened an extenſive field. There they might tranſport themſelves, and eſtabliſh whatever ſort of religious policy they were inclined to. The deſign, beſides, had ſomething in it noble, and admirably ſuited to the enterpriſing ſpirit of reformers in religion. With this view, having purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth Company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of ſettling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 perſons embarked for New England, and built a city, which, becauſe they had ſailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, and the diſeaſes to which, after a long ſea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were expoſed; notwithſtanding the want of all ſort of conveniences, and even of many of the neceſſaries of life, thoſe who had conſtitutions fit to endure ſuch hardſhips, not diſpirited or broken by the death of their companions, and ſupported by the vigour then peculiar to Engliſhmen, and the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves beyond the reach of the ſpiritual arm, ſet themſelves to cultivate this country, and to take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themſelves, for the ſame reaſons, uneaſy at home, paſſed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the cloſe of the year 1630, they had built four towns Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles Town, and Boſton, which laſt has ſince become the capital of New England. But as neceſſity is the natural ſource of that active and frugal induſtry, which produces every thing great among mankind, ſo an uninterrupted flow of proſperity and ſucceſs occaſions thoſe diſſenſions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often ſubvert the beſt founded eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from perſecution, became in a ſhort time ſtrongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their territories. Many of them were bigotted Calviniſts; and though they had felt the weight of perſecution themſelves, they had no charity for thoſe who profeſſed ſentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the ſame ſociety, without maintaining the ſame religious opinions; and wherever theſe were at variance, the members of different ſects kept at a diſtance from each other, and eſtabliſhed ſeparate governments. Hence ſeveral ſlips torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themſelves in a new ſoil, and ſpread over the country. Such was that of New Hampſhire, which continues to this day a ſeparate juriſdiction; ſuch too was that of Rhode Iſland, whoſe inhabitants were driven out from the Maſſachuſet's colony (for that is the name by which the goverment firſt erected in New England was diſtinguiſhed), for ſupporting the freedom of religious ſentiments, and maintaining that the civil magi-

magiſtrate had no right over the ſpeculative opinions of mankind. Theſe liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode Iſland, though ſmall, became extremely populous and flouriſhing. Another colony, driven out by the ſame perſecuting ſpirit, ſettled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of ſuch as were diſſatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main reſource of all diſcontented and enterpriſing ſpirits; and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637, a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is ſaid, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New England, after being a ſhipboard for that purpoſe.

Theſe four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at firſt, and ſtill continue, under ſeparate juriſdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free colonies, having the choice of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, the aſſembly, and the power of making laws not contradictory to thoſe of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his miniſters wanted to deſtroy all charters and liberties, the Maſſachuſet's colony was accuſed of violating their charter, in like manner as was the city of London, and by a judgment in the King's Bench of England was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was veſted in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entruſted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative on the choice of counſellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reaſon for what he did in this particular, or reſtrained to any number; authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, were to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were preſented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, were valid without the governor's conſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithſtanding theſe reſtraints, the people had ſtill a great ſhare of power in this colony; for they not only choſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, choſe the council, reſembling our houſe of lords; and the governor depended upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport.

By the laws of this province no perſon can be arreſted, if there are any means of ſatisfaction; nor impriſoned, unleſs there be a concealment of effects. Adultery was formerly death to both parties.

To the Maſſachuſet's government is united the ancient colony of Plymouth, and the territory called Main.

New Hampſhire was ſtill more under the influence of Great Britain. The council itſelf was appointed by the crown, but in other reſpects it agreed with the former.

The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Iſland preſerved their ancient charters, and enjoyed the ſame privileges which the Maſſachuſet's did formerly.

There were originally three ſorts of governments eſtabliſhed by the Engliſh on the continent of America, viz. royal governments, charter-governments, and proprietary governments.

A royal government was properly ſo called, becauſe the colony was immediately dependent on the crown, and the king remained ſovereign of the colony; he appointed the governor, council, and officers of ſtate, and the people only elected the repreſentatives, as in England; ſuch were the governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, Virginia, New Hampſhire, New York, New Jerſey, Georgia, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, the Weſt Indies, and the iſland of St. John's.

A charter government was ſo called, becauſe the company, incorporated by the king's charter, were in a manner veſted with ſovereign authority, to eſtabliſh what ſort of government they thought fit; and theſe charter governments have generally transferred their authority to the people; for in ſuch governments, or rather corporations, the freemen did not only chooſe their repreſentatives, but annualy choſe their governor, council, and magiſtrates, and made laws without the concurrence, and even without the knowledge, of the king; and were under no other reſtraint than this, that they enacted no laws contrary to the laws of England; if they did, their charters were liable to be forfeited. Such, as we have already obſerved, were, the governments of Rhode Iſland and Connecticut, in New England, and ſuch was that of the Maſſachuſet's formerly, though ſome alterations were afterwards made in it. Such likewiſe were thoſe of the two Carolinas.

The third kind of government was the proprietary, properly ſo called, becauſe the proprietor was inveſted with ſovereign authority: he appointed the governor, council, and magiſtrates, and the repreſentatives were ſummoned in his name; and by their advice he enacted laws, without the concurrence of the crown; but by a late ſtatute, the proprietor was to have the king's conſent in the appointing a governor, when he did not reſide in the plantation in perſon, and of a deputy-governor, when he did. And all the governors of the plantations were liable to be called to an account for their adminiſtration, by the court of King's Bench. The only proprietary governors lately ſubſiſting, were thoſe of Pennſylvania and Maryland.

But the government of New England has been entirely changed, in conſequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain; of the origin and progreſs of which an account hath been given in another place. It was on the 25th of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boſton, the declaration of the American Congreſs, abſolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the ſtate-houſe in that town.

A conſtitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Maſſachuſets, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and eſtabliſhed by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the inſtitution, maintenance, and adminiſtration of government, is to ſecure the exiſtence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furniſh the individuals who compoſe it, with the power of enjoying, in ſafety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the bleſſings of life; and that whenever theſe great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take meaſures neceſſary for their proſperity and happineſs. They expreſſed their gratitude to the great Legiſlator of the univerſe, for having afforded them, in the courſe of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud,

fraud, violence, or ſurpriſe, of entering into an original, explicit, and ſolemn compact with each other; and of forming a new conſtitution of civil government, for themſelves and their poſterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in ſociety, publicly, and at ſtated ſeaſons, to worſhip the Supreme Being; and that no ſubject ſhould be hurt, moleſted or reſtrained, in his perſon, liberty, or eſtate, for worſhipping God in the manner and ſeaſon moſt agreeable to the dictates of his own conſcience; or for his religious profeſſion or ſentiments; provided he did not diſturb the public peace, or obſtruct others in their religious worſhip.

It was alſo enacted, that the ſeveral towns, pariſhes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious ſocieties, ſhould, at all times, have the excluſive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their ſupport and maintenance. That all monies paid by the ſubject to the ſupport of public worſhip, and of the public teachers, ſhould, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the ſupport of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious ſect or denomination, provided there were any on whoſe inſtructions he attended; otherwiſe it might be paid towards the ſupport of the teacher or teachers of the pariſh or precinct in which the ſaid monies ſhould be raiſed. That every denomination of Chriſtians, demeaning themſelves peaceably, and as good ſubjects of the commonwealth, ſhould be equally protected by the law: and that no ſubordination of any ſect or denomination to another, ſhould ever be eſtabliſhed.

It was likewiſe declared, that as all power reſided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the ſeveral magiſtrates and officers of government, veſted with authority, whether legiſlative, executive, or judicial, are their ſubſtitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no ſubject ſhould be arreſted, impriſoned, deſpoiled, or deprived of his property, immunities, or privileges, put out of the protection of the law, exiled or deprived of his life, liberty, or eſtate, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legiſlature ſhould not make any law, ſubjecting any perſon to a capital or infamous puniſhment, except for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the preſs is eſſential to the ſecurity of freedom in a ſtate; and that it ought not, therefore, to be reſtrained in that commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep, and to bear arms, for the common defence; but that as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the conſent of the legiſlature; and that the military power ſhould always be held in an exact ſubordination to the civil authority, and be governed by it.

It was likewiſe enacted, that the department of legiſlation ſhould be formed by two branches, a ſenate, and a houſe of repreſentatives; each of which ſhould have a negative on the other. That the ſenators, and the members of the houſe of repreſentatives, ſhould be elected annually; and that every male perſon, being twenty-one years of age, or upwards, who had reſided in any particular town in the commonwealth for the ſpace of one year, and having a freehold eſtate within the ſaid town, of the annual income of three pounds, or any eſtate of the value of ſixty pounds, have a right to vote for ſenators and repreſentatives of the diſtrict of which he was an inhabitant. The ſenators are forty, choſen in this proportion; county of Suffolk 6, Eſſex 6, Middleſex 5, Hampſhire 4, Plymouth 3, Barnſtable 1, Briſtol 3, York 2, Duke's and Nantucket 1, Worceſter 5, Cumberland 1, Lincoln 1, Berkſhire 2. The houſe of repreſentatives is choſen alſo in certain proportions, and paid by the conſtituent body. It was likewiſe enacted, that there ſhould be a ſupreme executive magiſtrate, who ſhould be ſtyled, the governor of the commonwealth of Maſſachuſets, and alſo a lieutenant-governor, both of whom

ſhould

ſhould be choſen annually, by the whole body of electors in the commonwealth, and aſſiſted by nine counſellors, choſen by ballot, out of the ſenate. The ſecretary, treaſurer, receiver-general, notaries public, and naval officers, are choſen annually by the ſenators and repreſentatives. The judiciary power to be ſeptennial, and the delegates to congreſs ſhall be annually elected by and out of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, or general court. The governor has a negative on bills ſent to him for aſſent from the general court, but has no control on their choice of officers.

The ſtate of Rhode Iſland continues to admit their original charter as the rule of their government, it containing an ample grant of all powers legiſlative, executive, and judicial. New Hampſhire and Connecticut have not yet finally eſtabliſhed their forms of government, but have chiefly adopted that of Maſſachuſets Bay.

It is worthy of notice that during the war with Great Britain, an act was paſſed, on the 4th of May 1780, by the council and houſe of repreſentatives of Maſſachuſets Bay, for incorporating and eſtabliſhing a ſociety for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and ſciences. It is entitled, "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences:" the firſt members were named in the act; and they were never to be more than two hundred, nor leſs than forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and deſign of the inſtitution of the ſaid academy, was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural hiſtory of the country; and to determine the uſes to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal diſcoveries; mathematical diſquiſitions; philoſophical inquiries and experiments; aſtronomical, meteorological, and geographical obſervations; and improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce: and, in ſhort, to cultivate every art and ſcience, which might tend to advance the intereſt, honour, dignity, and happineſs, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

NEW YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles:		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300 Breadth 150	between	40 and 46 north latitude. 72 and 76 weſt longitude.	24,000.

BOUNDARIES.] NEW YORK is bounded on the South and South-weſt, by Hudſon's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jerſey and Pennſylvania; on the Eaſt and North-eaſt, by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-weſt, by Canada.

This province, including the Iſland of New York, Long Iſland, and Staten Iſland, is divided into the following counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.	
New York — — —	NEW YORK	40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. lon.
Albany — — —	Albany	

7 Ulſter

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Ulſter	Kingſton
Ducheſs	Poughkeepſie
Orange	Orange
Weſt-Cheſter	Bedford, White-plains
King's	Flatbuſh, Brooklyn
Queen's	Jamaica
Suffolk	Eaſt Hampton, Huntingdon
Richmond	Richmond
Waſhington	Salem
Montgomery	Johnſtown
Columbia	Hudſon
Clinton	Plattſburgh.

RIVERS.] The principal of theſe are Hudſon's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well ſtored with great variety of fiſh: on this the cities of New York and Albany are ſituated. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is ſaid to fall 70 feet perpendicular, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPES.] Theſe are Cape May on the Eaſt entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the eaſt end of Long Iſland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the South of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all conſtitutions. The face of the country, reſembling that of the other American colonies, is low, flat, and marſhy towards the ſea. As you recede from the coaſt, the eye is entertained with the gradual ſwelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the ſame with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.] The city of New York ſtands on the South-weſt end of York-Iſland, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well ſituated for trade, at the mouth of Hudſon's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany, and many other inland towns towards Canada, and the lakes. The city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. The city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery; in the fort is a ſpacious manſion-houſe for the uſe of the governor. Many of the houſes are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine proſpect. In the year 1776, when the king's troops took it, ſome incendiaries attempted to deſtroy it by fire, and one fourth part of it was burnt down. A great part of the inhabitants, now computed about 15,000, are deſcended from the Dutch families, who remained here after the ſurrender of the New Netherlands to the Engliſh, and the whole province in 1786, was numbered at 238,897; of which 18,889 were negroes. The better ſort are rich and hoſpitable, and the lower ranks are eaſy in their circumſtances; at leaſt this was the caſe before the commencement of the civil war; and both claſſes are endowed with a generous and liberal turn of mind, which renders their ſociety and converſation very agreeable.

The commerce of this province does not materially differ from that of New England. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and

and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the ſame with thoſe which the New Englanders uſe; and they have a ſhare in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spaniſh and French plantations. They uſed to take almoſt the ſame commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boſton. At an average of three years, their exports were ſaid to amount to 526,000 l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000 l.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] All religious denominations, except Jews and Papiſts, enjoyed equal privileges here, as there is no eſtabliſhed church, unleſs the eighth article of capitulation made on the ſurrender of the place ("The Dutch ſhall enjoy the liberty of their conſciences in divine worſhip and church diſcipline"), may be termed an eſtabliſhment. Judaiſm was tolerated, but popery was not. The inhabitants of the province conſiſt chiefly of Dutch, Engliſh, and Scotch preſbyterians, German Calviniſts, Lutherans, quakers, baptiſts, &c. who have their reſpective houſes of worſhip. The Dutch preſbyterians being in ſubordination to the Claſſis of Amſterdam, uſed to ſend all their youth, who are intended for the miniſtry, to Holland for ordination, as the epiſcopalians do theirs to England*. But by the late conſtitution of New York ſince its independence, it is ordained, that the free exerciſe and enjoyment of religious profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference, ſhall *for ever* be allowed within that ſtate to all mankind.

A college was erected in New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the aſſembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reaſon never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public ſeminary in ſo populous a city.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the firſt Europeans who formed ſettlements on this part of the American coaſt. The tract claimed by theſe two nations, extended from the 38th to the 41ſt degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who gained it by right of conqueſt in 1664, and it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our poſſeſſion, before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's acceſſion to the throne, the right to New York became veſted in the crown, ſince which time it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in ſeven years, elected their repreſentatives to ſerve in general aſſemblies. Theſe three branches of the legiſlature (anſwering to

* In the year 1740, the number of places for public worſhip in the city of New York ſtood as follows:

Dutch Preſbyterians	3	Baptiſts	1
Engliſh ditto	2	Moravians	1
Scotch ditto	1	German Calviniſts	2
Epiſcopalians	3	Lutherans	1
French refugees	1	Methodiſts	1
Quakers	1	Jews	1

The various religious denominations in the ſtate of New York, with the number of their reſpective congregations, are as follows:

Engliſh Preſbyterian	87	German Lutheran	12
Dutch Reformed, including ſix of the German language	66	Moravians	2
		Methodiſts	1
Baptiſts	30	Roman Catholic	1
Epiſcopalians	26	Jews	1
Quakers	20		

thoſe

thoſe of Great Britain), had power to make any laws not repugnant to thoſe of England; but to render them valid, the royal aſſent was required.

By the conſtitution of the ſtate of New York, eſtabliſhed in 1777, the ſupreme legiſlative power was veſted in two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men; the one to be called, "The Aſſembly of the States of New York," to conſiſt of 70 members annually choſen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York"; to conſiſt of 24 for four years, who together are to form the legiſlature, and to meet once, at leaſt, in every year, for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſupreme executive power is to be veſted in a governor, who is to continue in office three years, aſſiſted by four counſellors choſen by and from the ſenate. Every male inhabitant of full age, who ſhall poſſeſs a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and ſhall have paid taxes to the ſtate for ſix months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the aſſembly; but thoſe who vote for the governor, and the members of the ſenate, are to be poſſeſſed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congreſs, the judges, &c. are to be choſen by ballot of the ſenate and aſſembly.

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 160 Breadth 60	between	39 and 43 north latitude. 74 and 76 weſt longitude.	10,000.

BOUNDARIES. NEW JERSEY is bounded on the Weſt and South-weſt by Delaware river and bay; on the South eaſt and Eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound which ſeparates Staten Iſland from the continent, and Hudſon's river, on the North.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt Diviſion contains	Middleſex	Perth-Amboy and New-Brunſwick
	Monmouth	Shrewſbury and Freehold
	Eſſex	Elizabeth and Newark
	Somerſet	Boundbrook
	Bergen	Hakkenſaak
Weſt Diviſion contains	Burlington	BURLINGTON 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon.
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter
	Salem	Salem
	Cumberland	Hopewell, Bridgetown
	Cape May	None
	Hunterdon	Trenton
	Morris	Morriſtown
	Suſſex	Newtown.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is ſaid to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is much the ſame with that of New-York; the ſoil is various, at leaſt one-fourth part of the province is barren ſandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] New Jerſey is part of that vaſt tract of land, which we have obſerved was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James duke of York: he ſold it to lord Berkley and ſir George Carteret (from which it received its preſent name, becauſe ſir George had eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey), and they again ſold it to others, who in the year 1702 made a ſurrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which ſhe accepted: after which it became a royal government. By an account publiſhed in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000, but the number is ſuppoſed to have increaſed ſince to 130,000. Perth-Amboy and Burlington were the ſeats of government; moſt frequently the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. The former is among the beſt ports on the continent; and the harbour is ſafe and capacious enough to contain many large ſhips. Both have been lately made free ports for 25 years. This province has no foreign trade worth mentioning, owing to its vicinity to the large trading cities of New York and Philadelphia, by which it is ſupplied with merchandiſes of all kinds, and makes returns for them in lumber, wheat, flour, &c. In Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

By the new charter of rights eſtabliſhed by the provincial congreſs, July 2, 1776, the government of New Jerſey is now veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly. The members of the legiſlative council are to be freeholders, and worth at leaſt one thouſand pounds real and perſonal eſtate; and the members of the general aſſembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for repreſentatives in council and aſſembly, and for all other public officers. The elections of the governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly, are to be annual; the governor and lieutenant-governor to be choſen out and by the general aſſembly and council. The judges of the ſupreme court are choſen for ſeven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] The former ſtate of religion here may be ſeen by the following liſt of the houſes for public worſhip throughout the province, which was made in 1765 by a member of the council for the province *. According to the preſent conſtitution of this province, all perſons are allowed to worſhip God in that manner that is moſt agreeable to their own conſciences; nor is any perſon obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpoſe of building or repairing any other church or churches, or for the maintenance of any miniſter or miniſtry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himſelf to perform. There is to be no eſtabliſhment of any one religious

* Engliſh and Scotch Preſbyterians	57	Moravians	1
Quakers	39	Separatiſt	1
Dutch Preſbyterians	22	Rogereens	1
Epiſcopalians	22		
Baptiſts	22	In all	172
Lutherans	7		

ſect

ſect in this province, in preference to another; and no proteſtant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college was eſtabliſhed at the town of Princeton, by governor Belcher, in 1746, which has a power of conferring the ſame degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There was generally, before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, between 80 and 100 ſtudents here, who came from all parts of the continent, ſome even from the extremities of it. The damages it ſuſtained during the late war are computed at 5000 l. There is another college at Brunſwick, called Queen's college, founded a little before the laſt war, and in great repute.

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300 Breadth 240	between	74 and 81 weſt longitude. 39 and 44 north latitude.	15,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerſeys, on the Eaſt; and by Maryland, on the South and Weſt; and contains the following counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA { N. lat. 40. W. long. 75-20.
Cheſter	Cheſter
Bucks	Newtown
Berks	Reading
Northampton	Eaſton
Lancaſter	Lancaſter
York	York
Cumberland	Carliſle
Montgomery	Norriſton
Dauphin	Louiſburg
Luzerne	Wilkſborough
Northumberland	Sunbury
Franklin	Chamberſtown
Huntingdond	Huntingdon
Weſtmoreland	Greenſburgh
Fayette	Union
Waſhington	Waſhington
Allegany	Pittſburg.

Bedford, a country weſtward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchaſed from the Indians in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and eſtabliſhed in 1771.

Beſides theſe there are the three following:

Counties.		Chief Towns.
Newcaſtle, Kent and Suſſex	on Delaware	Newcaſtle, Wilmington; Dover; Leweſtown, Milford

which formed in ſome meaſure a diſtinct government, having an aſſembly of their own, though the ſame governor with the province of Pennſylvania: but is now diſtinct, and called the "Delaware State," having a preſident, council, and houſe of aſſembly. The preſident is choſen out of the general aſſembly by ballot, and the executive power lodged in him and a privy-council of two of the legiſlative council of nine, and two of the houſe of aſſembly, which conſiſts of 21 repreſentatives, ſeven for each county. The judges and other officers of ſtate, civil and military, are choſen by the preſident and general aſſembly.

RIVERS.] The rivers are Delaware, which is navigable more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. Suſquehanna and Schuylkill are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country. Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this province admirably ſuited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, ſoil, and produce, do not materially differ from thoſe of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is ſweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are ſo extremely cold and ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are moſt intolerably hot, but the country is refreſhed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of the Britiſh plantations, from New York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the ſoil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have not yet produced any wine that deſerves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a ſort of wine, with which they regale themſelves. It may alſo be obſerved of the timber of theſe colonies, that towards the ſouth it is not ſo good for ſhipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The farther ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily; which property, as it renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhips, makes it more uſeful for ſtaves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION CHIEF TOWNS AND COMMERCE.] This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. When theſe nations, however, were expelled from New York by the Engliſh, admiral Penn, who in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the iſland of Jamaica (under the auſpices of Cromwell), being in favour with Charles II. obtained the promiſe of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated quaker, availed himſelf of this promiſe, and after much court ſolicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn be little known but to thoſe of his own perſuaſion, his reputation in a character no leſs reſpectable is univerſal among all civilized nations. The circumſtances of the times engaged vaſt numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the perſecutions to which the quakers, like other ſectaries, were then expoſed; but it was to

his own wiſdom and ability they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which placed this colony on ſo reſpectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmoſt latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the foundation of all his inſtitutions. Chriſtians of all denominations might not only live unmoleſted, but have a ſhare in the government of the colony. No laws can be made but by the conſent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn ſubjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court conſtituted for that purpoſe. The cauſes between man and man were not to be ſubjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wiſe and honeſt arbitrators. His benevolence and generoſity extended alſo to the Indian nations: inſtead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchaſed of theſe people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldeſt right was veſted in them. William Penn, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his ſtatue placed next to thoſe of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the ſolid baſis of equity, ſtill maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only neceſſary to mention that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thouſand acres, with one ſhilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia before the commencement of the war with the mother-country, land rented at twenty ſhillings the acre, and even at ſeveral miles diſtance from that city, ſold at twenty years purchaſe.

In ſome years, more people tranſported themſelves into Pennſylvania than into all the other ſettlements together. In ſhort, this province has increaſed greatly from the time of its firſt eſtabliſhment. Upon the principal rivers, ſettlements are made, and the country has been cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. The preſent number of inhabitants are eſtimated at 320,000. The people are hardy, induſtrious, and moſt of them ſubſtantial, though but few of the landed people can be conſidered as rich; but before the commencement of the civil war, they were all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad: and this at the more eaſy rate, as the inferior people manufactured moſt of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very conſiderable towns, ſuch as German-Town, Cheſter, Oxford, Radnor, all which, in any other colony, would deſerve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, containing upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity ſcarcely equalled by any in Europe, totally eclipſes the reſt. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legiſlator of this colony. It is ſituated 100 miles from the ſea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, above a mile in breadth, on the north, and the Schuylkill, on the ſouth, by running in a line of two miles between them. It is intended that every quarter of the city, ſhould form a ſquare of eight acres, and that in the middle a ſquare of ten acres, ſurrounded by the town-houſe, and other public buildings. The high ſtreet is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nineteen other ſtreets, which are croſſed by eight more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with canals, from the two rivers, which contribute not only to the beauty, but to the wholeſomeneſs of the city. According to the original plan, every man in poſſeſſion of 1000 acres in the province, had his houſe either in one of the fronts, facing the rivers, or in the High Street, running from the

the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, beſides the above mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of the houſe, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's ſeat, which is the uſual place of the governor's reſidence, and is about a mile above the town, is the firſt private building, both for magnificence and ſituation, in all Britiſh America. The barracks for the troops, the market, and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are ſpacious and fine; and the principal quay is 200 feet wide.

There were in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way ſurpriſing, when we conſider the great trade which it carried on with the Engliſh, Spaniſh, French, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira iſlands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Beſides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, proviviſions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is ſo commodiouſly ſituated, the Germans, who are ſettled in the interior parts of this province, employ ſeveral hundred waggons, drawn each by four horſes, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 veſſels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennſylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of 611,000 l. Thoſe exported to Great Britain and other markets, beſides timber, ſhips built for ſale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, conſiſted of grain, flour, and many ſorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500 l. But ſuch was the ſpirit of adventuring in trade, after the concluſion of the late war, the duty in Philadelphia upon imported goods of 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*, produced from the firſt of March 1784, to the firſt of December, 132,000 l.; which, ſuppoſing that their value was not under rated, nor any ſmuggled to ſave the duty, makes their value amount to 3,168,000 l.

There was an academy eſtabliſhed at Philadelphia greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which, before the civil war broke out, bid fair to become a bright ſeminary of learning. It is now ſtiled an UNIVERSITY; its funds were partly given by the ſtate and partly taken from the old college. And in 1787 a college was founded at Lancaſter, and in honour to Dr. Franklin, called Franklin-College.

Beſides ſeveral other very improving inſtitutions in this city, there is one which deſerves a particular notice, which is THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE. This ſociety was formed January 2, 1769, by the union of two other literary ſocieties that had ſubſiſted for ſome time in Philadelphia; and were created one body corporate and politie, with ſuch powers, privileges, and immunities as are neceſſary for anſwering the valuable purpoſes which the ſociety had originally in view, by a charter, granted by the commonwealth of Pennſylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This ſociety has already publiſhed two very valuable volumes of their Tranſactions, one in 1771, the other in 1786. In 1771, this ſociety conſiſted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have ſince been added; a large proportion of which are foreigners of the firſt diſtinction in Europe. This is an evidence of the increaſing reſpectability and improvement of the ſociety.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congreſs of America met in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there, till the king's troops

made themſelves maſters of that city, on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778, the Britiſh troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the reſidence of the congreſs.

In 1776, the repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new conſtitution of government for that colony. They determined, that the commonwealth, or ſtate of Pennſylvania, ſhould be governed hereafter by an aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the freemen, and a preſident and council. That the ſupreme legiſlative power ſhould be veſted in the houſe of repreſentatives. That the ſupreme executive power ſhould be veſted in the preſident and council of twelve. That every freeman of twenty-one years of age, having reſided in Pennſylvania one year before the day of election for repreſentatives, and paid public taxes during that time, ſhould enjoy the right of an elector; and that the ſons of freeholders, of twenty-one years of age, ſhould be entitled to vote, although they had not paid taxes. That the houſe of repreſentatives ſhould conſiſt of perſons moſt noted for wiſdom and virtue, to be choſen by the freemen of every city and county of this commonwealth reſpectively. And that no perſon ſhould be elected, unleſs he had reſided in the city or county for which he ſhould be choſen two years before the election; and that no member, while he continued ſuch, ſhould hold any other office except in the militia. That no perſon ſhould be capable of being elected a member to ſerve in the houſe of repreſentatives more than four years in ſeven. That the members ſhould be choſen annually by ballot, and ſhould be ſtyled, "The general aſſembly of repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania," and ſhould have power to chooſe their ſpeaker, the treaſurer of the ſtate, and their other officers to prepare bills and enact them into laws, to redreſs grievances, impeach ſtate crimiminals, and have all other powers neceſſary for the legiſlature of a free ſtate or commonwealth. That delegates to repreſent Pennſylvania in congreſs ſhould be annually choſen by ballot, in the general aſſembly of repreſentatives.

That the ſupreme executive council of this ſtate ſhould conſiſt of twelve perſons, to be choſen by the freemen of Philadelphia, and the ſeveral counties of Pennſylvania. That a preſident, and vice-preſident, of this council, ſhould be choſen annually. That the preſident, and in his abſence the vice-preſident, with the council, five of whom are to be a quorum, ſhould have power to appoint judges, naval officers, judge of the admiralty, attorney-general, and other officers civil and military. That the preſident ſhall be commander in chief of the forces of the ſtate, but ſhall not command in perſon, except adviſed thereto by the council, and then only ſo long as they ſhall approve. That all trials ſhall be by jury; and that freedom of ſpeech, and of the preſs, ſhall not be reſtrained. That all perſons in public offices ſhould declare their belief in one God, the creator, and governor of the univerſe, the rewarder of the good, and the puniſher of the wicked; and alſo acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Teſtament to be given by divine inſpiration. A variety of other particulars were contained in this plan of government, particularly that the freemen, and their ſons, ſhould be trained and armed for the public defence, under ſuch regulations, reſtrictions, and exceptions, as the general aſſembly ſhould by law direct, preſerving always to the people the right of chooſing their colonel, and all commiſſioned officers under that rank, in ſuch manner, and as often as by the ſaid laws ſhould be directed. Two perſons alſo are to be choſen by ballot every year for each county and city by the freemen to be called "the Council of Cenſors," who are to examine into the conduct of the legiſlative and executive powers.

MARY-

MARYLAND.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 140 Breadth 135	between	75 and 80 weſt longitude. 37 and 40 north latitude.	12,000.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Pennſylvania, on the North; by another part of Pennſylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the Eaſt; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the Weſt.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Cheſapeak, viz. 1. The eaſtern; and 2. The weſtern diviſion.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The eaſt diviſion contains the counties of	Worceſter — —	Princeſs Anne
	Somerſet — —	Snow Hill
	Dorſet — —	Dorſet, or Dorcheſter
	Talbot — —	Oxford
	Cecil	
	Queen Anne's —	Queen's Town
	Kent — —	Cheſter
	Caroline	
The weſt diviſion contains	St. Mary's County —	St. Mary's
	Charles — —	Briſtol
	Prince George ——	Maſterkout
	Calvert — —	Abington
	Arundel — —	Annapolis, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Harford — —	
	Baltimore — —	Baltimore.
	Frederic	
	Waſhington	
	Montgomery	
	Hartford	

Rivers.] This country is indented with a vaſt number of valuable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Saſſafras.

Face of the country, air, soil, and produce. In theſe particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe already deſcribed. The hills in the inland country are of ſo eaſy aſcent, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural production. The vaſt number of rivers diffuſes fertility through the ſoil, that is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, which is the ſtaple commodity of that country, and hemp, Indian corn and grain, which they now begin to cultivate in preference to tobacco.

Population and commerce.] The number of inhabitants have of late years greatly increaſed, and are ſuppoſed to be about 254,050; which is 18 for every ſquare mile. The commerce of Maryland depends on the ſame principles with that of

of Virginia, and is ſo cloſely connected with it, that any ſeparation of them would rather confuſe than inſtruct. It will be conſidered therefore under that head.

History and government.] It ſeems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like thoſe we have formerly deſcribed, owes its ſettlement to religious conſiderations. As the neighbouring diſtricts, however, were peopled by proteſtants, and even ſectaries, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This ſect, towards the cloſe of Charles the Firſt's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the Engliſh nation; and the laws in force againſt the Roman-catholics were executed with great ſeverity. This in part aroſe from an opinion, that the court was too favourably diſpoſed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the moſt eminent, one in greateſt favour with the court, and on that account moſt odious to the generality of Engliſhmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country which formerly was conſidered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. and ſpouſe to king Charles. The year following, about 200 popiſh families, ſome of conſiderable diſtinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into poſſeſſion of this new territory. Theſe ſettlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which diſtinguiſhes gentlemen of every religion, bought their land at an eaſy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for ſome time in the ſame city; and the ſame harmony continued to ſubſiſt between the two nations until the Indians were impoſed on by the malicious inſinuations of ſome planters in Virginia, who envied the proſperity of this popiſh colony, and inflamed the Indians againſt them by ill-grounded reports, but ſuch as were ſufficient to ſtir up the reſentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reaſon to be ſo.

The colony, however, was not wanting to its own ſafety on this occaſion. Though they continued their friendly intercourſe with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to uſe every other precaution for their defence againſt ſudden hoſtilities; the defeat of this attempt gave new ſpring to the activity of this plantation; which was likewiſe receiving frequent reinforcements from England of thoſe who found themſelves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorſhip of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was deprived of his rights; and a new governor, appointed by the Protector, ſubſtituted in his room. At the Reſtoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural poſſeſſor. Baltimore was reinſtated in his rights, and fully diſcovered how well he deſerved that favour. He eſtabliſhed a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increaſed and flouriſhed, and diſſenters of all denominations, allured by the proſpect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their poſſeſſion, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence.

At the Revolution, lord Baltimore was again reſtored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not conſiſtently be conferred on a Roman-catholic. But after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the intereſt. The government of this country exactly reſembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietor, and only confirmed by the crown. The cuſtoms too were reſerved to the crown, and the officers belonging to them were independent of the government of the province. At length, as the proteſtants became far more numerous, they excluded the papiſts from all offices of truſt and power, and even adopted the

penal laws of England againſt them. The church of England was by law eſtabliſhed here, and the clergy were paid in tobacco: a tax for this purpoſe was annually levied, and every male white perſon above the age of ſixteen was obliged to pay 40 lb. of tobacco, (or if he raiſed no tobacco, he muſt take an oath that he did not, and pay the value in caſh); diſſenting clergy were not exempted. But ſince the civil war, by the declaration of rights and the conſtitution agreed to in the convention of delegates at Annapolis, Auguſt 14, 1776, the legiſlature is now to conſiſt of two diſtinct branches, the ſenate and the houſe of delegates; the latter to be annually choſen, *viva voce*, by the freeholders in each county, viz. St. Mary's, Charles, Calvert, Prince-George, Anne-Arundel, Baltimore, Frederick, Harford, Cecil, Kent, Queen-Anne, Talbot, Dorſet, Caroline, Somerſet, and Worceſter, four delegates each, and the city of Annapolis and Baltimore-town two each; delegates for the ſenate to be elected in like manner every five years, two for each county, out of whom are to be choſen fifteen ſenators, by ballot, i. e. nine for the Weſtern ſhore and ſix for the Eaſtern. The executive power is veſted in a governor and council of five, choſen annually by the joint ballot of the general aſſembly, who appoint the chancellor, judges, field-officers, &c. but the ſheriffs and juſtices of the peace are choſen by the freeholders in each county. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of ſuffrage in the election of delegates. All perſons appointed to any office of profit or truſt, are to ſubſcribe a declaration of their belief in the Chriſtian religion.

In 1782, a college was founded at Cheſter-town in this province, under the name of WASHINGTON COLLEGE, in honour of General Waſhington.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 750 Breadth 240	between	75 and 90 weſt longitude. 36 and 40 north latitude.		80,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the North-eaſt; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the Eaſt; by Carolina on the South; and the river Miſſiſippi, on the Weſt.

It may be divided into 75 counties, of very unequal ſize and population. Of theſe 35 are on the tide waters, or in that parallel; 23 are in the midlands, between the Tide-waters, and Blue Ridge of mountains; 8 between the Blue Ridge and Allegany; and 8 weſtward of the Allegany. The following table is taken from Morſe's American Geography, printed at Elizabeth Town, 1789.

Situation.

Situation.	Counties.
Westward of the Allegany.	Lincoln
	Jefferson
	Fayette
	Ohio
	Monongalia
	Washington
	Montgomery
	Green-briar
Between the Allegany and Blue Ridge.	Hampshire
	Berkley
	Frederick
	Shenando
	Rockingham
	Augusta
	Rockbridge
	Botetourt
Between the Blue Ridge and Tide Waters.	Loudoun
	Fauquier
	Culpeper
	Spotsylvania
	Orange
	Louisa
	Goochland
	Fluvanna
	Albemarle
	Amherst
	Buckingham
	Bedford
	Henry
	Pittsylvania
	Halifax
	Charlotte
	Prince Edward
	Cumberland
	Powhatan
	Amelia
	Lunenburg
	Mecklenberg
	Brunswick
Between James River and Carolina.	Greenesville
	Dinwiddie
	Chesterfield
	Prince George
	Surry
	Sussex
	Southampton
	Isle of Wight
	Nansemond
	Norfolk
	Princess Anne
Between James and York Rivers.	Henrico
	Hanover
	New Kent
	Charles City
	James City
	Williamsburg
	York
	Warwick
	Elizabeth City
Between York and Rappahanoc.	Caroline
	King William
	King and Queen
	Essex
	Middlesex
	Glouceſter
Between Rappahanoc and Potowmack.	Fairfax
	Prince William
	Stafford
	King George
	Richmond
	Westmoreland
	Northumberland
	Lancaster
Eastern Shore.	Accomac
	Northampton.

CAPES, BAYS, AND RIVERS.] In ſailing to Virginia or Maryland, you paſs a ſtrait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the ſouth to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is narroweſt, the water in moſt places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vaſt number of navigable rivers from the ſides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, beſides others of leſs note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Potowmack: theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips

into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is unqueſtionably the country in the world of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door. To the weſtward of the province, is the Ohio, a large river, which after a long courſe falls into the Miſſiſſippi.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that you are very near the ſhore, before you can diſcover land from the maſt-head. The lofty trees, which cover the ſoil, gradually riſe as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting proſpect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extenſive coaſt of America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In ſummer the heats here are exceſſive, though not without refreſhing breezes from the ſea. The weather is changeable, and the changes ſudden and violent. To a warm day there ſometimes ſucceeds ſuch an intenſe cold in the evening, as to freeze over the largeſt rivers.

The air and ſeaſons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increaſes; and the ſummer is much like ours, being refreſhed with gentle breezes from the ſea, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe and increaſe as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt theſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occaſion all the train of diſeaſes incident to a moiſt climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequently thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any miſchief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the ſea-ſhore, and the banks of the rivers, the ſoil of Virginia conſiſts of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a diſtance from the water there is a lightneſs and ſandineſs in the ſoil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and helped by a kindly ſun, which yields corn and tobacco in abundance.

From what has been ſaid of the ſoil and climate, it is eaſy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The foreſts are covered with all ſorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or bruſhes grow beneath; ſo that the people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, under a fine ſhade to defend them from the ſun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering ſhrubs of the richeſt colours and moſt fragrant ſcent. Silk grows ſpontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are ſtrong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake-root, and the ginſeng of the Chineſe, are here in great plenty. There is no ſort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are ſo engroſſed with the culture of the tobacco plant, which is here of a ſuperior quality to what any other country affords, that they think, if corn ſufficient for their ſupport can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own conſumption, but for exportation, though not in ſuch quantities as might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We ſhall here obſerve, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the ſouthern colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the

colonies, beef and pork were ſold here from one penny to two pence a pound; their fatteſt pullets at ſix-pence a-piece; chickens at three or four ſhillings a dozen; geeſe, at ten pence; and turkeys, at eighteen pence a-piece. But fiſh and wild fowl were ſtill cheaper in the ſeaſon, and deer were ſold from five to ten ſhillings a-piece. This eſtimate may ſerve for the other American colonies, where proviſions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in ſome ſtill lower. Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, thoſe natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a ſort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal, called the opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood-rat, mentioned by Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat; and beſides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a large number of teats on the uſual parts of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, untill they grow in bulk, and weigh to the appointed ſize; when they drop off, and are received into the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all ſorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, called from the country, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue; the mocking bird thought to excell all others in its own notes, and including that of every one; the humming bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nouriſhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. This is the firſt country which the Engliſh planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other ſettlements, as has been already obſerved, from the diſcovery of Sebaſtian Cabot, who, in 1497, firſt made the northern continent of America, in the ſervice of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to ſettle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that ſir Walter Raleigh, a man of the moſt enterprifing genius of any in that age, applied to court, and got together a company, which was compoſed of ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, and ſeveral eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade, and ſettle a colony, in that part of the world, which, in honor of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the cloſe of the ſixteenth century, ſeveral attempts were made for ſettling this colony, before any proved ſucceſsful. The three firſt companies who ſailed into Virginia, periſhed through hunger and diſeaſes, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced to almoſt the ſame ſituation; and being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had ſet ſail for England, in deſpair of living in ſuch an uncultivated country, inhabited by ſuch hoſtile and warlike ſavages. But in the mouth of Cheſapeak bay they were met by lord Delawar, with a ſquadron loaded with proviſions, and with every thing neceſſary for their relief and defence. At his perſuaſion they returned: by his advice, his prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was ſettled, and its defence provided for. This nobleman who had accepted the government from the nobleſt motives, was compelled, by the decayed ſtate of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his ſon, as deputy; with ſir Thomas Gates, ſir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them James-Town, the firſt town built by the Engliſh in the New World, was erected.

The colony continued to flouriſh, and the true ſources of its wealth began to be diſcovered and improved. The firſt ſettlers, like thoſe of Maryland, were gene-

rally perſons of conſideration and diſtinction. It remained a ſteady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of ſir William Berkely, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by ſtratagem than force, reduced them. After the reſtoration there is nothing very intereſting in the hiſtory of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himſelf of ſome diſcontents in the colony, on account of reſtraints in trade, became very popular, and ſet every thing in confuſion. His natural death, however, reſtored peace and uanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceaſed to deſtroy themſelves.

The government of this province was not at firſt adapted to the principles of the Engliſh conſtitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a ſubject of Great Britain thinks himſelf entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increaſed, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the conſtitution, by which the people, who had formerly no conſideration, were allowed to elect their repreſentatives from each county, into which this country is divided, with privileges reſembling thoſe of the repreſentatives of the commons of England. Thus two houſes, the upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, were formed. The upper houſe, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleaſure, by the crown; they were ſtyled Honourable, and anſwered in ſome meaſure to the houſe of peers in the Britiſh conſtitution. The lower houſe was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor repreſenting the king, an upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, this government bore a ſtriking reſemblance to our own. When any bill had paſſed the two houſes, it came before the governor, who gave his aſſent or negative as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was tranſmitted to England, and his majeſty's pleaſure known on that ſubject. The upper houſe of aſſembly acted not only as a part of the legiſlature, but alſo as privy-council to the governor, without whoſe concurrence he could do nothing of moment; it ſometimes acted as a court of Chancery.

The preſent government of this province as ſettled in convention at Williamſburg, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legiſlature, executive, and judiciary departments be ſeperate and diſtinct; that the houſe of delegates be choſen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the diſtrict of Weſt Auguſta; and one repreſentative for the city of Williamſburg and town of Norfolk. The ſenate to conſiſt of 24 members, alſo choſen by the freeholders of the ſtate, divided into 20 diſtricts. The executive is a governor and privy-council of eight members, choſen annually by the joint ballot of the general aſſembly of the ſtate, who alſo choſe the delegates to congreſs, the judges and other law officers, preſident, treaſurer, ſecretary, &c. juſtices, ſheriffs, and coroners, commiſſioned by the governor and council.

The inhabitants of Virginia were eſtimated in 1782 at 567,614; of whom 270,762 are negroes. So much do they increaſe under the mild treatment they receive. In the very firſt ſeſſion after their independence of Great Britain, the aſſembly paſſed a law for the perpetual prohibition of the importation of ſlaves. The inhabitants of Virginia are a cheerful, hoſpitable, and in general a well-bred people: ſome of them are accuſed of vanity and oſtentation. Here are only two towns which deſerve that name; the largeſt of which, and the capital of the province, is WILLIAMSBURG, 37-12 N. lat. 76-48 W. long. containing about ſixty houſes, and ſome ſpacious public buildings. It is about 40 miles from the mouth of James' River,

River, and ſeven from James-town, which was formerly the capital, and before the preſent war, contained many taverns and public houſes, for the entertainment of mariners.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is alſo included that of Maryland. Theſe provinces were ſuppoſed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000 l. into Great Britain. This, at eight pounds per hogſhead, makes the number of hogſheads amount to 96,000. Of theſe, it is computed, that about 13,500 hogſheads were conſumed at home, the duty on which, at 26 l. 1 s. per hogſhead, came to 351,675 l. the remaining 82,500 hogſheads were exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add that this ſingle branch employed 330 ſail of ſhips, and 7960 ſeamen. Not only our wealth, therefore, was promoted, but the very ſinews of our national ſtrength were powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of theſe colonies, of which naval ſtores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are moſt conſiderable, made the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000l. The exports of Great Britain, being the ſame as to our other colonies, at a like average, came to 865,000l.

Though an entire tolleration was alowed to all religions in this country, there were, before the commencement of the civil war, few diſſenters from the church of England. The biſhop of London uſed to ſend over a ſuperintendent to inſpect the characters of clergymen, who lived comfortably here (a prieſt to each pariſh) with about 100l. per annum, paid in tobacco.

Here is alſo a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of 2000l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a preſident, ſix profeſſors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or viſitors. The honorable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children. The preſbyterian denomination of chriſtians is the moſt numerous in this province; for though the firſt ſettlers were Epiſcopalians, yet through the indolence of the clergy, two thirds of the people had become diſſenters at the commencement of the late revolution.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA WITH GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 700 Breadth 380	between	76 and 91 weſt longitude. 30 and 37 north latitude.	110,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean on the Eaſt; by the river St. John, which ſeparates Georgia from Florida, on the South; and by the Miſſiſſippi, on the Weſt.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Districts.	Counties.
Edenton, 9 Counties.	Chowan
	Currituck
	Cambden
	Paſquetank
	Perquimins
	Gates
	Hertford
	Bertie
	Tyrrel
Wilmington, 8 Counties.	New Hanover
	Brunſwick
	Cumberland
	Robinſon
	Duplin
	Beaden
	Wayne
	Moore
Newbern, 8 Counties.	Craven
	Beaufort
	Carteret
	Pitt
	Dobbs
	Hyde
	Jones
	Onſlow
Davidſon 2 Counties.	Davidſon
	Sumner.

The above three diſtricts, of Edenton, Wilmington, and Newbern, are on the ſea coaſt, extending from the Virginia line ſouth-weſtward to South-Carolina.

Districts.	Counties.
Halliſax, 7 Counties.	Halifax
	Northampton
	Martin
	Edgecomb
	Warren
	Franklin
	Naſh
Hillſborough, 9 Counties.	Orange
	Chatan
	Granville
	Johnſton
	Caſwell
	Sampſon
	Wake
	Guilford
	Randolph
Saliſbury, 8 Counties.	Rowan
	Mecklenburg
	Rockingham
	Surry
	Montgomery
	Anſon
	Wilkes
	Richmond
Morgan, 7 Counties.	Burke
	Green
	Rutherford
	Waſhington
	Sullivan
	Lincoln
	Hawkins.

SOUTH CAROLINA, hath ſeven diſtricts, in which are 35 counties; as follows;

	Counties.
BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the ſea-coaſt, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT.	Hilton
	Lincoln
	Granville
	Shrewſbury
CHARLESTON DISTRICT, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief Town, CHARLESTON. W. long. 79-12 N. lat. 32-45.	Charleſton
	Waſhington
	Marion
	Berkely
	Colleton
	Bartholomew

	Counties.
ORANGE DISTRICT, weſt of Beaufort diſtrict. Chief town ORANGEBURG.	Lewiſburg
	Orange
	Lexington
	Wniton
CAMDEN DISTRICT, weſt of George-Town diſtrict. Chief town, CAMDEN.	Clarendon
	Richland
	Fairfield
	Cleremont
	Lancaſter
	York
	Cheſter

GEORGE-

	Counties.		Counties.
GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT between Santee river and North-Carolina. Chief Town GEORGE-TOWN,	Winyah Williamſburg Kingſton Liberty	NINETY-SIX DISTRICT, comprehends all other parts of the ſtate, not included in the other diſtrict. Chief town CAMBRIDGE.	Abbeville Edgefield Newbury Union Laurens Spartanburgh Greenville.

CHERAWS DISTRICT, weſt of George-town diſtrict, Chief towns are } Marlborough, Cheſterfield, Darlington.

GEORGIA. That part of the ſtate which hath been laid out in counties is thus divided:

Counties.	Principal Towns.
Chatham	SAVANNAH lat. 32-5. W. long. 80-20
Effingham	Ebenezer
Burke	Wayneſburg and Louiſville
Richmond	AUGUSTA
Wilkes	Waſhington
Liberty	Sunbury
Glynn	Brunſwick
Camden	St. Patrick's
Waſhington	Golphinton
Greene	Greenſburg.
Franklin	

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamtico; Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatamaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divide Georgia from Florida: all which rivers riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and running eaſt, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yaſous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble ſtreams which fall into the Miſſiſſippi or the gulf of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only ſea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is ſo ſhallow near the coaſt, that a ſhip of any great burden cannot approach it, except in ſome few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the beſt are thoſe of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle river, Pamtico and Cape Fear. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw or George-Town, Charles-Town, and Port-Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours.

The moſt remarkable promontories, are, Cape Hattaras, in 35 degreees odd minutes north latitude, Cape Fear to the ſouth of it, and Cape Carteret ſtill farther ſouth.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any conſiderable difference between the climate of theſe countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia; but, where they differ it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The ſummers, indeed, are of a more intenſe heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and ſhorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions, from heat to cold, and from cold to heat. The winters are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the

froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon-day ſun; ſo that many tender plants which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town, and excellent in their kinds, both ſweet and ſour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. In this reſpect, too, there is a conſiderable coincidence between theſe countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia hath not ſo good a ſoil as the other provinces. The whole country is covered with trees, except where our planters have cleared it. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and by the different ſpecies of theſe, the quality of the ſoil is eaſily known. The land in Carolina is eaſily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the foreſts moſtly conſiſt of tall trees at a conſiderable diſtance. Thoſe grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark ſand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhauſted; for here they never uſe any manure. The pine barren is the worſt of all; this is an almoſt perfect white ſand: yet it bears the pine tree, and ſome other uſeful plants, yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this ſpecies of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peaſe; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even anſwers for rice. But what is moſt fortunate for this province is, that this worſt part of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, ſwampy grounds bear their great ſtaple, rice. The country near the ſea is much the worſt, in many parts little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the ſea, not a hill nor a rock, nor ſcarcely even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it improves continually; and at 100 miles diſtance from Charles Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpoſe of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the variegated diſpoſition of this back-country. Here the air is pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heat much more temperate than in the flat ſandy coaſt.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and ſoil have ſomething in them ſo kindly, that the latter, when left to itſelf, naturally throws out an immenſe quantity of flowers and flowering ſhrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, ſilk, wine, and oil, might be produced in theſe colonies: of the firſt we have ſeen ſamples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increaſe.

From what we have obſerved of theſe valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peaſe, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms, ſarſaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, roſin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm, thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beſide theſe, that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent ſpirits, and mead as good as Malaga ſack. Of all theſe, the three great ſtaple commodities at preſent are, indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing ſurpriſes an European more

more at firſt ſight, than the ſize of thet rees here, as well as in Virignia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of theſe trunks when hollowed, the people of Charles-Town as well as the Indians make canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place; and ſome of them are ſo large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one entire piece of timber. Of theſe are likewiſe made curious pleaſure-boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from thoſe of Virginia; but in Carolina they have ſtill a greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but ſome have a 1000 or upwards. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſts; but their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the ſame manner, and return like the cows: theſe are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horſes, in the woods. It is ſurpriſing that the cattle ſhould have increaſed ſo quickly ſince their being firſt imported from Europe, while there are ſuch numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, conſtantly ranging the woods and foreſts. We have already obſerved that the animals are leſs ravenous than the beaſts of Africa and Aſia; they very ſeldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. The firſt Engliſh expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing ſucceſsful was performed till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, which inveſted them with the property and juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch as were willing to go over into the new ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compoſe for them.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land towards the ſouthward of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city called Charles-Town, which was deſigned to be, what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, the diſputes between the church of Englandmen and diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony. This was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal conſequences of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000l. for both the property and juriſdiction; and the conſtitution of this colony, in thoſe reſpects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Granville, however thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare, which continued in the poſſeſſion of his family. For the more convenient adminiſtration of affairs, too, Carolina was divided into two diſtricts, and two ſeparate governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being reſtored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, theſe provinces began to breathe; and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen and others, from compaſſion to the poor of theſe kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000 l. from the government, was given to

provide neceſſaries for ſuch poor perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this province, and to ſubmit to the regulations impoſed on them. In proceſs of time, new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. It was not however to be expected that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great diſtance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of thoſe who had a natural influence over them, would ſubmit to the magiſtrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themſelves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increaſed in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard that they ſhould be deprived of. From theſe corrupt ſources aroſe all the bad humours which tore to pieces this conſtitution of government. Diſſenſions of all kinds ſprung up, and the colony was on the brink of deſtruction, when in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with the Carolinas.

The method of ſettling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of Britiſh America, was to pitch upon a void ſpace of ground, and either to purchaſe it at the rate of 20l. for a 1000 acres, and one ſhilling quit rent for every 100 acres; or otherwiſe, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchaſe-money: the former method is the moſt common, and the tenure a freehold. The people of Carolina live in the ſame eaſy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already deſcribed. Poverty is here almoſt an entire ſtranger; and the planters are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with to all ſtrangers, and eſpecially to ſuch as by accidents or misfortunes are rendered incapable to provide for themſelves.

The only place in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, the metropolis, in South Carolina, which for ſize, beauty, and trade, may be conſidered as one of the firſt in America. It is admirably ſituated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every reſpect, but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than 200 tons burden, loaded, from entering. The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified by nature and art; the ſtreets are well cut; the houſes are large and well built; ſome of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handſome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houſes, and was the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond deſcription. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred; and before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, the people were ſhewy and expenſive in their dreſs and way of living; ſo that every thing conſpired to make this by much the livelieſt, and politeſt place, as well as the richeſt in all America. It ought alſo to be obſerved, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that when, in common with the other colonies, they reſolved againſt the uſe of certain luxuries, and even neceſſaries of life; thoſe articles which improve the mind, enlarge the underſtanding, and correct the taſte, were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

North and South Carolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt againſt Great Britain; and in 1780, Charles-Town being beſieged by the king's troops, ſurrendered on capitulation, with 6000 men in arms, priſoners, on the 11th of May in that year, after the ſiege had continued ſeven weeks.

As

As South-Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the neighbouring provinces, the commerce of this country alone employed 140 ſhips, while that of the other two did not employ 60. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000l. annual value; and its imports 365,000l. The exports of North-Carolina were computed at about 70,000l. and its imports 18,000l. The trade of Georgia is likewiſe in its infancy; the export amounted to little more than 74,000l. and the imports to 49,000 l.

The trade between Carolina and the Weſt-Indies was the ſame in all reſpects with that of the reſt of the colonies, and was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a very flouriſhing condition; and they formerly carried Engliſh goods on pack-horſes 5 or 600 miles into the country weſt of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North-Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, veſſels of above 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighterage. Edenton is the capital of North Carolina, but little more than a trifling village; they were lately projecting a town farther ſouth, which would be more centrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiouſly ſituated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the ſea, upon a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the ſecond town, called Auguſta, which ſtands in a country of the greateſt fertility, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you ſee the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea; and on the other hand, you ſee the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield (who uſed to croſs the Atlantic every ſecond year) founded an orphan houſe, which is now converted to a very different uſe, into a college for the education of young men, deſigned chiefly for the miniſtry.

In October 1779, the town of Savannah being in poſſeſſion of the king's troops, was beſieged by 8000 of the American and French troops, in conjunction; but they were bravely repulſed by the king's troops, with a great ſlaughter of the French and Americans. But Savannah and Charles-Town, with the reſt of the provinces, were afterwards evacuated and reſtored to the Americans.

By a late eſtimate of their population, the number of inhabitants in North Carolina, is 270,000 of which 60,000 are negroes; in South Carolina, 80,000 whites, and about 100,000 negroes; and in Georgia, about 40,000 excluſive of Indians.

The government of North Carolina ſettled in convention at Halifax, December 18th, 1776 is, in a legiſlature of two ſeparate bodies, the ſenate and houſe of commons. One ſenator and two repreſentatives to be choſen by ballot annually, by the freemen and freeholders of each county, and one commoner for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Saliſbury, and Halifax. The executive power is a governor and ſeven counſellors, annually choſen by and out of the general aſſembly by joint ballot, who alſo appoint the judges, field-officers, ſecretary, treaſurer, &c. The juſtices are recommended by the people, as alſo the ſheriffs; and the delegates to congreſs are elected annually out of the general aſſembly by joint ballot.

In the year 1785, the inhabitants of the counties of Sullivan, Waſhington, and Green, in North Carolina, which lie directly weſt of the mountains in this ſtate, convened in committees—appointed and held a convention—framed a conſtitution—elected their governor—and in ſhort erected themſelves into a ſeparate, independent ſtate, by the name of the *New State of Franklin*. This premature ſtate was to comprehend all that tract of country which lies between the mountains, and the *Suck* or *Whirl*, in the Tenneſſee river. Theſe proceedings occaſioned great con-

fuſion and warm diſputes in North Carolina, which continued to rage till the year 1788, when all pretenſions to independency were relinquiſhed, and tranquillity was reſtored to the ſtate *.

The conſtitution eſtabliſhed by the council and aſſembly, March 28th, 17-8, for South Carolina, is, that the legiſlative authority be veſted in the general aſſembly, conſiſting of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives ſeparately, each being elected by the freemen and freeholders of the ſeveral pariſhes and diſtricts in the ſtate, every two years, in certain proportions; the former of 23 and the latter of 202 members. The executive power is that of a governor, lieutenant-governor, and eight privy-counſellors, elected out of the general aſſembly by joint ballot every two years, who alſo chooſe delegates to congreſs annually. Juſtices of the peace, ſheriffs, and other judicial, military, and revenue officers, are nominated by the aſſembly, and commiſſioned by the governor.

The conſtitution agreed to in convention for Georgia, February 5, 1777, is, the legiſlative, executive, and judiciary departments ſhall be diſtinct and ſeparate bodies. The legiſlative to conſiſt of repreſentatives elected by the freemen and freeholders annually, by ballot, in each county, viz. Wilkes, Richmond, Burke, Effingham, Chatham, ten members each; Liberty, fourteen; Glynn and Camden one each; the town of Savannah four, and Sunbury two. Theſe 72 repreſentatives to conſtitute the houſe of aſſembly, out of whom are choſen, by ballot, the governor and executive council of two from each of the firſt ſix counties; and alſo the delegates to congreſs, annually. The ſubordinate officers of the ſtate are appointed by the reſpective bodies, and the ſeveral courts they depend on.

NEW STATES FORMED IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE *New State of Franklin*, of which we have taken notice in our account of North Carolina, was formed by the union of three counties in this laſt ſtate. But after much confuſion, all pretenſions to independency were at length relinquiſhed, and it is now reunited with its parent ſtate. Beſides this, two other ſtates have lately ariſen, thoſe of KENTUCKE and VERMONT; of theſe we ſhall give ſome account in this place.

KENTUCKE, [belonging at preſent to the ſtate of Virginia.]

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by one Macbride, in 1754. Its central part is ſituated near the latitude 38. N. and 85. W. long. It is bounded on the North by Sandy Creek, by the Ohio on the N. W. by North Carolina on the South, and by Cumberland mountains on the Eaſt.

KENTUCKE, is divided into ſeven Counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.	Counties.	Chief Town.
Jefferſon, at the falls of the Ohio, - -	Louiſville	Nelſon - - - -	Bardſtown.
Fayette - - - -	Lexington	Madddiſon	
Bourbon		Lincoln	
Mercer - - - -	Harrodſtown		

In all theſe, as well as in many other places, are houſes for the inſpection of tobacco.

* Morſe's American Geography, p. 423.

The

The Ohio bounds Kentucke in its whole length. This ſtate is watered by many rivers, and the greateſt part of the ſoil is amazingly fertile, and is more temperate and healthy than any part in America.

Near a place called Licking river is found a pure ſalt rock. The Ohio (the great reſervoir of all the numerous rivers that flow into it from both ſides), has many fine vallies, oppoſite to each of which there is a hill, the valley and the hills changing ſides alternately.

Here are buffalos, bears, deer, elks, and many other animals, common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them.

In the rivers are the fineſt fiſh, and abundant. Salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook fiſh.

The warbling tenants of the grove are here numerous, and exhibit all the variety of feathered beauty, as well as the melody of ſylvan ſong. The paroquet is common here, as is the ivory-bill wood-cock, of a whitiſh colour, with a white plume: the bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation; it makes a ſurpriſing noiſe like a man in diſtreſs.

Its natural curioſities are aſtoniſhing and innumerable: caves are found amazingly large, in ſome of which you may travel ſeveral miles under a fine limeſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars; in moſt of them run ſtreams of water. Near Lexington are to be ſeen curious ſepulchres, full of human ſkeletons.

There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which diſcharge themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the fineſt oil *.

There are many alum banks, and different places abounding with copper, which, when refined, is equal to any in the world.

At a ſalt ſpring near the Ohio river, very large bones have been found, far ſurpaſſing the ſize of any ſpecies of animals now in America, the head appears to have been conſiderably above three feet long.

Dr. Hunter ſaid it could not be the elephant, and that from the form of the teeth it muſt have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been ſent both to France and England.

What animal this is, and by what means its ruins are found in theſe regions, where none ſuch now exiſt, are very difficult queſtions, and variouſly reſolved. The variety of conjectures ſerves only to prove the futility of all.

Among the natural curioſities of this place, the winding banks or rather precipices of Kentucke river, are particularly deſerving to be recorded. The aſtoniſhed eye there beholds almoſt every where three or four hundred feet of a ſolid perpendicular limeſtone rock. In ſome parts a fine white marble. Theſe precipices are like the ſides of a deep trench or canal, the land above, level and crowned with fine groves of red cedar.

The Miſſiſſipi and Ohio, are the keys to the northern parts of the weſtern continent. The uſual route to Kentucke is from Philadelphia or Baltimore, by the way of Peterſburg. From the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans, (a diſtance not exceeding 460 miles in a ſtraight line) is 856 by water. The mouth empties itſelf by ſeveral channels into the gulf of Mexico.

An idea may be formed of the aſtoniſhing emigrations to this country, from the following account taken by the adjutant of the troops ſtationed at Fort Harmer, at the mouth of the Muſkingum.

From the 10th of October 1786, to the 12th of May 1787, 177 boats, con-

* Morſe's American Geography, p. 407.

taining

taining 2689 ſouls, 1353 horſes, 766 cattle, 112 waggons and two phaetons, beſides a very conſiderable number that paſſed in the night unobſerved.

It is at preſent peopled by above one hundred and fifty thouſand ſettlers. From the interior ſettlements of this vaſt country, America will derive her future greatneſs, and eſtabliſh new empires to rival, and perhaps outdo the ancient world.

VERMONT.

THE ſtate of Vermont is a vaſt country, ſituated eaſtward of New-Hampſhire, ſouth of Maſſachuſets, and weſt of New York. It is 155 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The capital of the ſtate is Bennington.

The Allens are the chiefs or head men of the country. It is governed by its own laws, independent of Congreſs and the States. Hitherto it has been an object of contention between the ſtates of New York and New Hampſhire. The people had for a long time, no other name than Green Mountain Boys, which they gallicized into Verdmont, and ſince corrupted into the eaſier pronunciation of Vermont.

The antique foreſts, into which the arm of man is juſt carrying the deſtructive axe, every where afford the moſt grand and ſublime proſpects. Little of the land of this ſtate is yet cleared, but the emigrations to it from other ſtates are great, and it will ſoon become well cultivated, and equal in fertility to the ſtates it approximates. Its population is ſaid already to amount to 150,000.

The declaration which they made by their repreſentatives in convention, at Windſor, on the 25th of December 1777, and which makes a part of their conſtitution; breaths as high a ſpirit of liberty as that of any of their neighbours.

They aſſert that all men are born equally free, with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conſcience—freedom of the preſs—trial by jury—power to form new ſtates in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be inſtituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or aboliſh government—that every member of ſociety hath a right to protection of life, liberty, and property—and in return, is bound to contribute his proportion of the expence of that protection, and yield his perſonal ſervice when neceſſary—that he ſhall not be obliged to give evidence againſt himſelf—that the people have a right to bear arms—but no ſtanding army ſhall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themſelves their houſes, papers, and poſſeſſions free from ſearch or ſeizure, and therefore warrants, without oaths firſt made, affording ſufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no perſon ſhall be liable to be tranſported out of this ſtate, for trial for any offence committed in the ſtate, &c *.

The ſtates of New York and Penſylvania have large tracts of fertile land, extending to the lakes, proper for the forming of ſettlements, and very capital ones have lately been made. This country will in future prove one of the moſt advantageous commercial ſituations in America, having in a manner the key of Canada, and of all the northern Indian trade; the navigation extending from the weſtern ſea to the lakes, has no other obſtruction than ſmall portages, which in time, will be converted into canals. The fur trade will chiefly centre in this country.

* Morſe's American Geography, p. 472.

In

In the inland country of Virginia and North Carolina, the ſettlements, in many parts extend to the mountains. In the eaſtern parts of Virginia, ſettlements have been made in the mountains themſelves, where ſome induſtrious Germans (who found the land in the vallies taken up,) have eſtabliſhed conſiderable plantations.

South Carolina has immenſe tracts of fertile land unſettled.

The ſtate of Virginia, poſſeſſing lands on the other ſide the mountains, (and having more immediate communication with the Ohio country on the river) many thouſands have paſſed over them, and ſettled themſelves in that tract which lies between the mountains and the river. It is ſaid ſome emigrants have croſſed that river, and ſettled in the country bordering on the lakes.

By a late ſettlement, the country to the ſouthward of the Ohio is included in the ſtate of Virginia. All the country to the northward of this great river, extending from Pennſylvania to the eaſt, the lakes on the north, and the Miſſiſſipi on the weſt, are intended to be divided by congreſs into ten new ſtates, viz. WASHINGTON, METROPOTAMIA, PESILIPPA, MICHIGANIA, ILLINOIA, CHERSONESUS, SARATOGA, SYLVANIA, ASSENIPI, POLYPOTAMIA.

Theſe ten ſtates (ſpreading over an immenſe tract of land) are traverſed by the great river Ohio, in a courſe of 1200 miles, receiving into its waters the innumerable rivers which are ſcattered over the whole country. On the North they are bounded by the five great lakes, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario; which empty themſelves into the river St. Laurence. On the eaſt they have the ſtates of New York, Penſylvania, and Virginia, whoſe navigation (as well as the St. Laurence) affords them a direct communication with the Atlantic Ocean. On the ſouth they are partly bounded by the mountains, and on the weſt by the vaſt river Miſſiſſipi, (whoſe ſource is unknown) and which after flowing through the great continent of America, (admitting into its ſwelling waves the tributes of a thouſand waters) falls into the gulf of Mexico.

WEST INDIES.

WE have already obſerved, that between the two continents of America, lie a multitude of iſlands, which we call the Weſt Indies, and which, ſuch as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and ſeaſons of theſe iſlands differ widely from thoſe of Europe, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them in general, as well as mention ſome other particulars peculiar to the Weſt Indies.

The climate in all our Weſt India iſlands is nearly the ſame, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the ſun never recedes farther from any of them than about 30 degrees to the ſouth, they are continually ſubjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner as to enable the inhabitants to attend their concerns even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable providence in the diſpoſing of things, it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a

manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, as ſhield them from his direct beams; and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies are far more violent than with us. Our heavieſt rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time all the low country is under water *. Hence it is, that the rivers which have their ſource within the topics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon: but ſo miſtaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dryed and ſcorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable; when in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is often one of the greateſt inconveniences of the climate.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moiſture which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to the greater quantity of a ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air, metals of all kinds, that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes, ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time; and this cauſe, perhaps as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to European conſtitutions.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes; the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and often juſt at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of the reach of fortune. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort with every circumſtance, which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt they ſee as the prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their wind-mills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes yield no protection; the rooſs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour riſes five feet, ruſhes in upon them with an irreſiſtible violence.

The hurricanes come on either in the quarters, or at the full or change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, the ſky is very turbulent, the ſun more red than at other times; a dead calm prevails, and the hills are clear of all thoſe clouds and miſts which uſually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a great wind. At night the ſtars ſeem much larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burs; the north-weſt ſky has a black and menacing look; the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without any wind; the wind itſelf now forſakes its uſual ſteady eaſterly ſtream, and ſhifts about to the weſt from whence it ſometimes blows with intermiſſions, violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herſelf is ſurrounded with a great bur, and ſometimes the ſun has the ſame

* See Wafer's Journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien.

appearance.

appearance. Theſe are ſigns which the Indians of theſe iſlands taught our planters, by which they can prognoſticate the approach of a hurricane.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies is ſugar; a commodity not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not ſettled whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Braſil, by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa; but, however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt, ſugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar cane is the moſt lively, elegant and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; and which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar a meaner ſpirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is conſumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland, and other parts, beſides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be diſtilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have ſeen, and by others which we may eaſily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the Weſt Indies are very great, and the profits at the firſt view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the windmill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle, will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000l. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleneſs and luxury; at all times he muſt keep a watchful eye upon his overſeers, and even overſee himſelf occaſionally. But at the boiling ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a conſtant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and ſo many fiery furnaces; add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider when the ſugars are in the caſk, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Notwithſtanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as in the Weſt Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons, generally provides againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has commonly a ſalary of 150l. a year, with overſeers under him in proportion to the greatneſs of the plantation, one to about 30 negroes, with a ſalary of about 40l. Such plantations too have a ſurgeon at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong too it. But the courſe which is leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of the rent,

and the keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the neat produce of the beſt years; ſuch tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it; ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork, a day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profits of their labour yield 10 or 12 l. annually. The price of men negroes upon their firſt arrival is from 30 to 36l. women and grown boys 50s. leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſland generally bring above 40l. upon an average one with another; and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man expert in buſineſs bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

To particulariſe the commodities proper for the Weſt India market, would be to enumerate all the neceſſaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, ſpices, and the commodities already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they ſell; but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or leſs as a venture, the Weſt India market is frequently overſtocked; money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under. But thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our Weſt Indies at leaſt 230,000 negro ſlaves; and upon the higheſt calculation, the whites therein did not amount to 90,000 ſouls. This diſproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more viſible every day, ſome writers have endeavoured to account for, by alledging, that the enterpriſing ſpirit, which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent cauſes, had produced in the laſt century, has decayed very much. That the diſpoſition of the Weſt Indians themſelves, who, for cheapneſs chooſe to do every thing by negroes which can poſſibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the ſmall number of whites of the lower ſtation. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in conſtant terror of inſurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial ſervants, who are infinitely the moſt dangerous of the ſlaves, and in caſe of any inſurrection, have it more in their power to ſtrike a ſudden and fatal blow; and the cruelty with which the negroes are often treated, gives the white inhabitants too much reaſon for their apprehenſions.

The firſt obſervation that has been mentioned, in order to account for the preſent diſproportion between the freemen and the negroes in the Weſt Indies, we think is not well founded; that enterpriſing ſpirit which firſt led Britons out to diſcovery and colonization, ſtill animates in a very conſiderable degree the people of this nation; but the field has been lately more ample and enlarged, and emigrants have had greater ſcope whereon to range. Beſides the vaſt continent of North America, which takes in ſuch a variety of climates, and diſcovers ſuch a

richneſs of ſoil; the Eaſt Indies, an inexhauſtible mine of riches, have in ſome degree drawn the attention of mankind from that of the Weſt. Many of the beſt families of this nation are ambitious of procuring places for their ſons in the Eaſt Indies. Here is an ample field for all adventurous ſpirits, who diſdaining an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming uſeful to themſelves, their connections or community, boldly venture into the immenſe regions of the Eaſtern world.

The iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching from north to ſouth from the coaſt of Florida, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into the Windward and Leeward iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena or New Spain and Portobello. The geographical tables and maps diſtinguiſh them into the Great and Little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] The firſt that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles ſouth-weſt of England.

This iſland is interſected by a ridge of ſteep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. Theſe rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; being nouriſhed by the rains, which often fall, or the miſts which contiunally brood on the mountains, and which their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome water, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between theſe ridges, are level beyond what is ordinary in moſt other countries, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about 13 hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſon in the Weſt Indies are into the dry and wet ſeaſons. The air of this iſland is, in many places, exceſſively hot, and unfavourable to European conſtitutions; but the cold ſea-breezes, which ſet in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high ground is temperate, pure and cooling. It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms frequently does great damage. In February or March they expect earthquakes, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue ſometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found ſeveral ſalt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible endemial diſtempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greateſt and moſt valuable production of this iſland. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces alſo ginger, and the pimento

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or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon-tree, whoſe bark is ſo uſeful in medicine; the manchineel, whoſe fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worſt poiſons in nature; the mahogany, in ſuch uſe with our cabinet makers, and of the moſt valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large ſize, and durable; the cabbage-tree remarkable for the hardneſs of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma affording oil, much eſteemed by the ſavages, both in food and medicine; the ſoap-tree, whoſe berries anſwer all the purpoſes of waſhing; the mangrove and olive bark, uſeful to tanners; the fuſtic and redwood for dying; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton tree is ſtill ſo. No ſort of European grain grows here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peaſe of various kinds, but none of them reſembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits are produced in great abundance; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhadocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, tar-apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and ſeveral kinds of berries; alſo garden ſtuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this iſland are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their fleſh is exceedingly ſweet and delicate. Their horſes are ſmall, mettleſome and hardy, and often ſell for 30 or 40l. ſterling. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, china, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Here are great variety of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parroquets, pellicans, ſnipes, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkies; the humming-bird, and many others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marches do the guana and gallewaſp, but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects are the ciror, or chego, which eat into the nervous and membranous parts of the fleſh of the negroes, and the white people are ſometimes infeſted with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a nedle, or the point of a penknife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

This iſland was originally a part of the Spaniſh empire in America. Several deſcents had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; but it was not till that year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was unſucceſsful. The commanders, of their own accord, to attone for this misfortune, made a deſcent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

We have already obſerved, that the government of all the American iſlands is the ſame, namely, that kind which we have formerly deſcribed under the name of a royal

a royal government. Their religion too is univerſally of the church of England; though they have no biſhop, the biſhop of London's commiſſary being the chief religious magiſtrate in thoſe parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at preſent that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Beſides theſe, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a ſort of colony among the Blue Mountains, independent of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and to whom they ſend back run-away ſlaves.

Indigo was once much cultivated in Jamaica, and enriched the iſland to ſuch a degree, that in the pariſh of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are ſaid to have had no leſs than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number perhaps the whole iſland exceeds not at this day; and there is great reaſon to believe, that there were many more perſons of property in Jamaica formerly, than are now, though they had not thoſe vaſt fortunes which dazzle us in ſuch a manner at preſent. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which treading on the heels of the former calamities, ſwept away vaſt multitudes. Among the cauſes of their decline, the Weſt Indians complain of being deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; of the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, who are enabled to underſell them, owing to the comparative ſmallneſs of their duties; of the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints have been heard, and ſome remedies applied; others remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood trade, and the contraband, have been the ſubject of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain and the Spaniſh nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right, and at the peace of 1763, it was confirmed to us, the latter was permitted; becauſe we thought, and very juſtly, that if the Spaniards found themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it, by their guarda coſtas, which cruiſe in thoſe ſeas, purpoſely to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels and cargoes as are found in this trade. In this manner did the Britiſh court argue, till the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to ſend Engliſh cruiſers to the American coaſt, effectually to cruſh that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of Britiſh ſubjects in America loudly complained, as it put a ſtop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit ſo largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with an inconſiderate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with an inconſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of

June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, ſo as to leave, in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people, the water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and raſters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads juſt above ground, and were ſqueezed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and people in them; the place appearing for ſome time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts, mountains were ſplit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but, ten years after it was deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, it was laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. Such repeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted ſpot; the inhabitants therefore reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to reſide at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is lately become the capital of the iſland.

Kingſton conſiſts of upwards of one thouſand houſes, many of them handſomely built, and in the taſte of theſe iſlands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with porticoes, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingſton, ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spaniſh town, which though at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held.

On the third of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane almoſt overwhelmed the little ſea-port-town of Savannah-la-Mer, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houſes were left ſtanding, and a great number of people were killed. Much damage was alſo done, and many lives loſt, in other parts of the iſland.

The whole product of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads. Firſt, ſugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thouſand three hundred and fifteen hogſheads, ſome of them a ton in weight; which cannot be worth leſs in England than 424,725l. Moſt of this goes to London, Briſtol, and Glaſgow, and ſome part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thouſand puncheons. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, molaſſes, in which they made a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the produce of the grand ſtaple, the ſugar cane. According to the late teſtimony of a reſpectable planter in Jamaica, that iſland hath 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are commonly cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of ſugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable; but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweet-meats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a very profitable trade

in

in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spaniſh Main goes on, which it will be impoſſible for Spain entirely to ſtop, while it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and while the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhew ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilſt they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes. Their equipages, their cloaths, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in their own livery, have once a year Oſnaburghs, and a blanket for clothing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, careleſsly wrapped about them: before dinner they put off their diſhabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dreſs.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for a ſhilling per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of an inferior rank, is rum-punch, which they call Kill-Devil, becauſe, being frequently drank to exceſs, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a few hours ſend them to the grave, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland, which is the reaſon that ſo many die here upon their firſt arrival.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being entirely Spaniſh. There is no place where ſilver is ſo plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets, beef, pork, fowl, and fiſh, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton ſells at nine pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed ſome gentlemen well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

The miſery and hardſhips of the negroes are truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported to the Weſt Indies, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die through hard uſage. It is ſaid, they are ſtubborn and untractable, for the moſt part, and that they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to be cruſhed with it, or to be thought a ſort of beaſts, without ſouls, as ſome of their maſters, or overſeers do at preſent, though ſome of theſe tyrants are themſelves the dregs of this nation, and the refuſe of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituation eaſy and comfortable; and it has been obſerved that in North America, and other countries, where in general theſe poor wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it ſeems clear, from the whole courſe of hiſtory, that thoſe nations who have behaved with the greateſt humanity to their ſlaves, were always beſt ſerved, and ran the leaſt hazard from their rebellions. The ſlaves, on their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale; they are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures, but they

ſoon become roguiſh enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuſe their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negro returns to his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe, to many of them, be quite intolerable. They look on death as a bleſſing, and it is ſurpriſing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it. When a negro is about to expire, his fellow ſlaves kiſs him, and wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.—When will the voice of humanity be properly attended to, and this opprobrium of cultivated nations ceaſe!

BARBADOES.] This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbees, is ſituated in 59 degrees weſt lon. and 13 degrees north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it the moſt ſavage and deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kinds of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves to this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery. A practice, which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented; and in 1676, it is ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000 whites, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot, a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers.

At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of 50 years. But ſince that time, this iſland has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar-colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their numbers at preſent are ſaid to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by

by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October 1780, a dreadful hurricane occaſioned vaſt devaſtation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houſes were deſtroyed, not one houſe in the iſland was wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 degrees weſt lon. and 17 degrees north lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long, and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it as unworthy of their attention; and in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much ſugar as Barbadoes, and ſometimes quite as much. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February 1782, it was taken by the French, but reſtored to England by the late treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 degrees weſt lon. and 17 degrees north lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt. It has one of the beſt harbours in the Weſt Indies, and its capital St. John's, which before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward Iſlands. Antigua is ſuppoſed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 ſlaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two ſmall iſlands, lying between St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and together contain 5000 whites, and 10,000 ſlaves. The ſoil in theſe four iſlands is pretty much alike, light and ſandy, but notwithſtanding fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar-cane. Both theſe iſlands were taken by the French in 1782, but were reſtored at the peace.

BARBUDA.] Situated in 17 degrees 49 min. north lat. 61 deg. 50 min. weſt lon. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for ſhipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in 18 degrees north lat. 60 miles north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is about 30 miles long, and 10 broad. This iſland is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves to huſbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 16 deg. N. lat. and 62 W. lon. lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and thirteen in breadth: it got its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies, and the iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always oppoſed our ſettling here, becauſe it muſt cut off their communication, in the time of war, between Martinico and Guadalupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in

expreſs terms to the Engliſh; but we have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, the iſland being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own ſettlements, took refuge here. But, on account of its ſituation between the principal French iſlands, and Prince Rupert's Bay, being one of the moſt capacious in the Weſt Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itſelf, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778, but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late peace.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in 13 deg. N. lat. and 61 deg. W. lon. 50 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, 30 miles ſouth of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the Weſt Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and there are many fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands. The Caribbeans are ſaid to have been treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland came into poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace, in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is ſituate in 12 deg. north lat. and 62 deg. weſt lon. about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved, that the ſoil is extremely proper for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies, of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and it is not ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's Bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, 100 large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which this handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war but one, when Granada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland together with the ſmall iſlands on the North, called the Granadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763. In July, 1779, the French made themſelves maſters of this iſland, which was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt India ſugar iſlands lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſome others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other, upon the coaſt of this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulf of St. Laurence, between 46 and 52 degrees north lat. and between 53 and 59 weſt lon. ſeparated from Labrador, or

New Britain, by the ſtraits of Belleiſle; and from Canada, by the Bay of St. Laurence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland, which is rocky and barren, we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long-continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber (which on the ſea-coaſt is perhaps no very remote proſpect), will afford a large ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod, carried on upon thoſe ſhoals which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employed 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery for the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to increaſe the national ſtock 300,000l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted to us for the cod we ſell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the leſſer ones, which lie to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the iſle of Cape Breton; ſo that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or ſo barren as not to produce any thing from their ſoil, their coaſts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that ariſing from the moſt fertile ſoil.

This iſland, after various diſputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on its northern ſhores; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fiſh in the gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they ſhould not approach within three leagues of any of the coaſts belonging to England. The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated to the ſouthward of Newfoundland, were alſo ceded to the French, who ſtipulated to erect no fortifications on them, nor to keep more than 50 ſoldiers to enforce the police. By the laſt treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fiſheries on the north and the weſt coaſts of the iſland; and the Americans are allowed the ſame privileges in fiſhing as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonaviſta, and St. John: but not above 1000 families remain here in the winter. A ſmall ſquadron of men of war are ſent out every ſpring to protect the fiſheries and inhabitants, the commander of which is governor of the iſland.

CAPE BRETON.] This iſland, ſeated between Newfoundland and Nova-Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The ſoil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louiſburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where ſix or ſeven fathoms water.

The French began a ſettlement in this iſland, in 1714, which they continued to increaſe, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, diſpoſſeſſed in 1745, by the inhabitants of New England, with little aſſiſtance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who ſpared no expence to fortify and ſtrengthen it. Notwithſtanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the Britiſh troops under general Amherſt and admiral Boſcawen, together

gether with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and ſtores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, ſince which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louiſburgh diſmantled.

ST. JOHN'S.] Situated in the gulf of St. Laurence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, has many fine rivers, and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleaſantneſs and fertility of ſoil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this iſland, amounting to 4000, ſubmitted quietly to the Britiſh arms; and, to the diſgrace of the French governor, there were found in his houſe ſeveral Engliſh ſcalps, which were brought there to market by the ſavages of Nova Scotia; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This iſland was ſo well improved by the French, that it was ſtyled the granary of Canada, which it furniſhed with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS, or SUMMER ISLANDS.] Theſe received their firſt name from their being firſt diſcovered by John Bermudas a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Iſlands, from ſir George Summers, who was ſhipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his paſſage to Virginia. They are ſituated at a vaſt diſtance from any continent, in 32 degrees north lat. and in 65 degrees weſt long. Their diſtance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but ſmall, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of acceſs, being, as Waller the poet, who reſided ſome time there, expreſſes it, "walled with rocks." The air of theſe iſlands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always eſteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richneſs of the vegetable productions are delightful. Though the ſoil of theſe iſlands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only buſineſs of the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of the light ſloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are remarkable for their ſwiftneſs; as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended with ſeven or eight forts and ſeventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houſes, a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S, or BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between 22 and 27 degrees north lat. and 73 and 81 degrees weſt long. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to the iſle of Cuba; and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only mere rocks; but twelve of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the ſoil of Carolina: all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of the Floridas; though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galleons ſail in their paſſage to Europe.

Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his paſſage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The Engliſh, obſerving the ad-

vantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands as a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to ſettle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky accidents prevented this ſettlement from being of any advantage; and the Iſle of Providence became an harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out captain Woodes Rogers, with a fleet, to diſlodge the pirates, and to make a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſettlement, theſe iſlands have been improving, though they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Auguſtine, April 7, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt India iſlands, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as far as the 52d degree of ſouth lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland iſlands, ſituated near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South America. King Charles II. of England thought the diſcovery of this coaſt of ſuch conſequence, that ſir John Narborough was purpoſely fitted out to ſurvey the Straits of Magellan, the neighbouring coaſt of Patagonia, and the Spaniſh ports in that neighbourhood; with directions, if poſſible, to procure ſome intercourſe with the Chilian Indians, who are generally at war, or at leaſt on ill terms, with the Spaniards; and to eſtabliſh a commerce and a laſting correſpondence with them. Though ſir John, through accidental cauſes, failed in this attempt, which, in appearance, promiſed many advantages to this nation, his tranſactions upon that coaſt, beſides the many valuable improvements he furniſhed to geography and navigation, are rather an encouragement for farther trials of this kind, than any objection againſt them. It appeared by the precautions and fears of the Spaniards, that they were fully convinced of the practicability of the ſcheme he was ſent to execute, and extremely alarmed with the apprehenſion of its conſequences. It is ſaid, that his majeſty Charles II. was ſo far prepoſſeſſed with the belief of the emoluments which might redound to the public from this expedition, and was ſo eager to be informed of the event of it, that having intelligence of ſir John Narborough's paſſing through the Downs, on his return, he had not patience to attend his arrival at court, but went himſelf in his barge to Graveſend to meet him.

"As therefore it appears (ſays the author of Anſon's Voyage) that all our future expeditions to the South Seas muſt run a conſiderable riſk of proving abortive, whilſt in our paſſage thither we are under the neceſſity of touching at the Portugueſe ſettlement of Braſil (where we may certainly depend on having our ſtrength, condition, and deſigns betrayed to the Spaniards), the diſcovery of ſome place more to the ſouthward, where ſhips might refreſh, and ſupply themſelves with the neceſſary ſea-ſtock for their voyage round Cape Horn, would be an expedient that would relieve us from theſe embarraſſments, and would ſurely be a matter worthy the attention of the public. Nor does this ſeem difficult to be effected; for we have already the imperfect knowledge of two places, which might, perhaps, on examination, prove extremely convenient for this purpoſe; one of them is Pepys' Iſland, in the latitude of 47° ſouth, and laid down by Dr. Halley, about 80 leagues to the eaſtward of Cape Blanco, on the coaſt of Patagonia; the other is *Falkland's Iſles*, in the latitude of 51 and a half, lying nearly ſouth of Pepys' Iſland. The laſt of theſe have been ſeen by many ſhips, both French and Engliſh. Woodes Rogers,

Rogers, who ran along the north-eaſt coaſt of theſe iſles in the year 1708, tells us that they extended about two degrees in length, and appeared with gentle deſcents from hill to hill, and ſeemed to be good ground, interſperſed with woods, and not deſtitute of harbours. Either of theſe places, as they are iſlands at a conſiderable diſtance from the continent, may be ſuppoſed, from their latitude, to lie in a climate ſufficiently temperate. This even in time of peace, might be of great conſequence to this nation; and, in time of war, would make us maſters of thoſe ſeas."

Falkland iſlands were firſt diſcovered by ſir Richard Hawkins in 1594; the principal of which he named Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1689, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps.

In the year 1764, the late lord Egmont, then firſt lord of the admiralty, revived the ſcheme of a ſettlement in the South-Seas, and commodore Byron was ſent to take poſſeſſion of Falkland Iſlands in the name of his Britannic majeſty, and in his journal repreſents them as a valuable acquiſition. On the other hand, they are repreſented by captain M'Bride, who in 1766 ſucceeded that gentleman, as the outcaſts of nature. "We found, ſays he, a maſs of iſlands and broken lands, of which the ſoil was nothing but a bog, with no better proſpect than that of barren mountains, beaten by ſtorms almoſt perpetual. Yet this is ſummer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, thoſe who lie but two cables length from the ſhore, muſt paſs weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir-trees, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, ſheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increaſe as in other places. Geeſe, of a fiſhy taſte, ſnipes, foxes, ſea-lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the ſummer months, wild celery and ſorrel, are the natural luxuries of thoſe iſlands.

But though the ſoil be barren, and the ſea tempeſtuous, an Engliſh ſettlement was made here, of which we were diſpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards in 1770. That meaſure was, however, diſavowed by the Spaniſh ambaſſador, and ſome conceſſions were made to the court of Great Britain; but the ſettlement was finally abandoned in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the court of Spain.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 500 Breadth 440	between	80 and 91 weſt longitude. 25 and 32 north latitude.		100,000.

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, and includes a part of Louiſiana, is bounded by Georgia on the North; by the Miſſiſſippi on the Weſt; by the gulf of Mexico on the South; and by the Bahama ſtraits on the Eaſt.

RIVERS.]

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſſippi, which forms the weſtern boundary of Florida, and is one of the fineſt in the world, as well as the largeſt; for including its turnings and windings, it is ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burthen; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman ſays ſeventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except the entrance already mentioned, every where free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almoſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, St. Bernard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Sambles, Anclote, St. Auguſtine, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Various accounts have been given of theſe particulars. The people who obtained grants of lands in Florida, when belonging to England, and were deſirous to ſettle or ſell them, repreſented the whole country as a Canaan, and St. Auguſtine, in Eaſt Florida, as the Montpelier of America: they told us that the climate of Florida is an exceedingly agreeable medium betwixt the ſcorching heat of the tropics, and the pinching cold of the northern latitudes; that there is indeed a change of the ſeaſons, but it is a moderate one: in November and December, many trees looſe their leaves, vegetation goes on ſlowly, and the winter is perceived, but ſo mild, that ſnow is never ſeen there; and the tendereſt plants of the Weſt Indies, ſuch as the plantain, the alligator pear-tree, the banana, the pine-apple, the ſugar-cane, &c. remain unhurt during the winter in the gardens of St. Auguſtine; that the fogs and dark gloomy weather, ſo common in England, are unknown in this country; and though at the equinoxes, eſpecially the autumnal, the rains fall very heavy every day for ſome weeks together: yet when the ſhower is over, the ſky immediately clears up, and all is calm and ſerene.

Others have repreſented this very coaſt as the grave and burying-place of all ſtrangers who are ſo unhappy as to go there, alleging the well-known ſtory propagated ſoon after the laſt peace, that upon the landing of our troops to take poſſeſſion of Florida, the Spaniards aſked them, "What crimes have you been guilty of at home?" We ſhall take the liberty to obſerve on this head, that though the air is here very warm, the heats are much allayed by cool breezes from the ſeas which environ and waſh a conſiderable part of this country. The inland countries towards the north feel a little of the roughneſs of the north-weſt wind, which, more or leſs, diffuſes its chilling breath over the whole continent of North America, carrying froſt and ſnow many degrees more to the ſouthward in theſe regions, than the north-eaſt wind does in Europe. That the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome, appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who in theſe reſpects far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans; and when the Spaniards quitted St. Auguſtine, many of them were of great age, ſome above ninety.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. Many of the diſadvantages indiſcriminately imputed to the ſoil of the whole country ſhould be confined to Eaſt-Florida, which indeed, near the ſea, and 40 miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian

corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a larger ſize, and produce better fruit than in Spain or Portugal. The inland country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, producing ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas; and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions. There is not, on the whole continent of America, any place better qualified by nature to afford not only all the neceſſaries of life, but alſo all the pleaſures of habitation, than that part of this country which lies upon the banks of the Miſſiſſippi.

From the climate of Florida, and ſome ſpecimens ſent to England, there is reaſon to expect, that cotton, ſugar, wine, and ſilk, will grow here as well as in Perſia, India, and China, which are in the ſame latitudes. This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergris, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quick-ſilver, pit-coal, and iron ore: pears are found in great abundance on the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but inferior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good ſaddle-horſe in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head. Naval ſtores might be produced in great quantities in Florida; and Weſt Florida has already ſupplied Spain with conſiderable quantities. It is ſaid, that no province can ſo profitably furniſh Madeira with corn and pipe-ſtaves as Weſt Florida, and in return ſupply itſelf and other provinces with wines. The fiſheries might likewiſe be rendered here very profitable, as might alſo the trade for furs, and various other branches.

POPULATION, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. Notwithſtanding the luxuriancy of the ſoil, the ſalubrity of the air, the cheapneſs and plenty of proviſions, and the encouragement of the Britiſh government, the number of Engliſh inhabitants here was never very conſiderable. Indeed the affairs of the colony appear to have been injudiciouſly managed; and the reduction of Penſacola by the arms of the king of Spain in 1781, deprived us of our flattering proſpects from the poſſeſſion of Florida.

The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. lon. 87-20, which is ſeated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every wind, being ſurrounded by land on all ſides. This place ſent in ſkins, logwood, dying ſtuff, and ſilver in dollars, to the annual value of 63,000 l. and received of our manufactures, at an average of three years, to the value of 97,000l.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. lon. 81-12, runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and encloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is furniſhed with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, forming two channels, whoſe bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

NEW MEXICO INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 Breadth 1600	between	94 and 126 weſt longitude. 23 and 43 north latitude.		600,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louiſiana, on the Eaſt; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean, on the South; and by the ſame ocean, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
North-eaſt diviſion	New Mexico Proper	SANTA FE, W. lon. 104. N. lat. 36.
South-eaſt diviſion	Apacheira — —	St. Antonio
South diviſion	Sonora — —	Tuape
Weſt diviſion	California, a peninſula.	St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Theſe countries lying for the moſt part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a ſoil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, the heat is great in ſummer, particularly towards the ſea-coaſt; but in the inland country, the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural hiſtory of theſe countries is yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themſelves know little of the matter, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate, being jealous of diſcovering the natural advantages of theſe countries, which might be an inducement to other nations to form ſettlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleaſant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, interſected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, ſome producing excellent fruit. With reſpect to the value of the gold mines, nothing poſitive can be aſſerted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, ſetting on the roſe leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar, without its whiteneſs. There is alſo another very ſingular natural production; in the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt, quite firm and clear as cryſtal, which, conſidering the vaſt quantities of fiſh found on its coaſts, might render it an invaluable acquiſition to any induſtrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION AND COMMERCE.] The Spaniſh ſettlements here are comparatively weak; though they are increaſing every day in proportion as new mines are diſcovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spaniſh miſſionaries have in many places brought over to Chriſtianity, to a civilized life, and to raiſe corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was diſcovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator, ſir Francis Drake, took poſſeſ-

fion of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably fituated for trade, and on its coaſt has a pearl fiſhery of great value. The inhabitants and government do not materially differ from thoſe of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 2000	between	83 and 110 weſt longitude.		318,000.
Breadth 600		8 and 30 north latitude.		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the gulf of Mexico, on the North-eaſt; by Terra Firma, on the South-eaſt; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the South-weſt, containing three audiences.

Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
I. GALICIA.	1. Guadalajarra	Guadalajarra
	2. Zacatecas	Zacatecas
	3. New Biſcay	St. Barbara
	4. Cinolea	Cinolea
	5. Culiacan	Culiacan
	6. Charmetlan	Charmetlan
	7. Xaliſco	Xaliſco
II. MEXICO.	1. Mexico	Mexico, W. lon. 100-5. N. lat. 19-54.
		Acapulco
	2. Mechoacan	Mechoacan
	3. Panuco	Tampice
	4. Tlaſcala	Tlaſcala
		Vera Cruz
	5. Guaxaca	Guaxaca
	6. Tobaſco	Tobaſco
	7. Jucatan	Campeachy
	8. Chiapa	Chiapa
	9. Soconuſco	Soconuſco

III. GUA-

Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
III. GUATIMALA.	1. Verapaz	Verapaz
	2. Guatimala	Guatimala *
	3. Honduras	Valladolid
	4. Nicaragua	Leon
	5. Coſta Rica	Nycoya
	6. Veragua	Santa Fe.

BAYS.] On the north ſea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South-Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas.

CAPES.] Theſe are cape Sardo, cape St. Martin, cape Condecedo, cape Catoche, cape Honduras, cape Cameron, and cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, cape Spirito Santo, cape Corientes, cape Gallero, cape Blanco, cape Burica, cape Prucreos, and cape Mala, in the South-Sea.

WINDS.] In the gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, there are ſtrong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade-winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land, within the tropics. Near the coaſt, in the South-Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monſoons, and ſea and land breezes, as in Aſia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico, lying for the moſt part within the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot, and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, is marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons; it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome. The inland country, however, aſſumes a better aſpect, and the air is of a milder temperature; on the weſtern ſide the land is not ſo low as on the eaſtern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The ſoil of Mexico in general has much variety, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain, did the induſtry of the inhabitants correſpond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts are here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Mexico produces alſo a prodigious quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, ſo that here are more ſugar mills than in any other parts of Spaniſh America. Cedar trees and logwood flouriſh much about the bays of Campeachy and Honduras: the Maho tree alſo which hath a bark with ſtrong fibres, which they twiſt and makes ropes of. They have alſo a tree, which is called light-wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandiſe on the ſea-coaſts.

But what is conſidered as the chief glory of the country, and what firſt induced the Spaniards to form ſettlements upon it, are the mines of gold and ſilver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one reſpect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and ſilver mines depends on the ſame principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of ſeveral heterogeneous ſubſtances, mixed with the

* This city was ſwallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thouſand families inſtantly periſhed. New Guatimala is built at ſome diſtance, and is well inhabited.

precious metals, it is broken into ſmall pieces by a mill, and afterwards waſhed, by which means it is diſengaged from the earth, and other ſoft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all ſubſtances, has the ſtrongeſt attraction for gold, and likewiſe a ſtronger attraction for ſilver than the other ſubſtances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and ſilver are firſt ſeparated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by ſtraining and evaporation, they are diſunited from the mercury itſelf. Of the gold and ſilver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid. Thoſe who have enquired moſt into the ſubject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spaniſh America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver.

The other articles next in importance to gold and ſilver are the cochineal and cocoa. After much diſpute concerning the nature of the former, it ſeems at laſt agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and ſucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimſon colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which conſiſts in dying all ſorts of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple. It is alſo uſed in medicine as a ſudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no leſs than nine hundred thouſands pounds weight of this commodity to anſwer the purpoſes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next conſiderable article in the natural hiſtory and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling ſize, which bears a pod about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spaniſh commerce in this article is immenſe; and ſuch is the internal conſumption, as well as the external demand for it, that a ſmall garden of cocoas is ſaid to produce to the owner twenty thouſand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutritious, and ſuitable to the climate. This country likewiſe produces ſilk, but not in ſuch abundance as to make any remarkable part of its export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightneſs is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS. We ſhall place theſe heads under one point of view, becauſe the reader will ſoon be ſenſible they are very nearly connected. We have already deſcribed the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conqueſt of that country by the Spaniards. The preſent inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are creoles, i. e. natives of Spaniſh America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a ſtill more conſiderable portion of pride; for they conſider themſelves entitled to great diſtinctions as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are deſcended, without that courage, firmneſs, and patience, which make the praiſe-worthy part of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greateſt part of their lives to loitering, and inactive pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade, and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and ſpecious inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitution their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of conſequence are not at all diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity or domeſtic virtues. The Indians, who notwithſtanding the devaſtations of the firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppreſſion and indignity, a dejected, timourous, and miſerable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all thoſe in other

parts

parts of the world, are ſtubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the groſs ſlavery they endure as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greateſt part of Spaniſh America. The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a reſemblance to the parliaments in France. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power which his Catholic majeſty has in his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſh government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The greatneſs of the viceroy's office is diminiſhed by the ſhortneſs of its duration. For as jealouſy is the leading feature of Spaniſh politics, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in ſecuring the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy conſequences to the miſerable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spaniſh America. It is impoſſible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to the purpoſes of eccleſiaſtics. The people are ſuperſtitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with ſuch materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church ſhould enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more ſurpriſing that it has not one half.

COMMERCE, CITIES, AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extend over the world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the gulf of Mexico; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulco on the South-Sea; and with South America by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themſelves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war, as a convoy, and 14 large merchant ſhips, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo conſiſts of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little more than wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, are the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, in the iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galeons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America, and the Eaſt Indies. About the month of December, the great galeon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, annually arrives here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips, for the convoy, though in an underhand manner, likewiſe carries goods, conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the Eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is computed to bring not leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver and other valuable commodities to be laid

laid out in the purchaſe of the galeons cargoes. Several other ſhips, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galeon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparitively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the flota, ſo that the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargo of the galeon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negociated. The Eaſt India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz alſo paſs through this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here are wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate which are every year ſent into Europe. The city itſelf breathes the air of the higheſt magnificence, and according to the beſt accounts contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400 Breadth 700	between	60 and 82 weſt longitude, the equator, and 12 north latitude.	700,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic ocean), on the North; by the ſame ſea and Surinam, on the Eaſt; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
The north diviſion contains the provinces of	1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien —	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 80-21 N. lat. 8-47.
	2. Carthagena —	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha —	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha —	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela ——	Venezuela
	6. Comana ——	Comana
	7. New Andaluſia, or Paria — —	St. Thomas
The ſouth diviſion contains the provinces of	1. New Granada	Santa Fè de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayn.

RIVERS,

RIVERS, BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Iſthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the North, to Panama on the South Sea, or rather a little weſt of theſe two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the Iſthmus, or neck of land, is only 60 miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oronoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's in the South-Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulf of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Trieſto, the bay of Guaria, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulf of Paria, or Andaluſia, in the North-Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Naſſau; all on the north ſhore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern diviſions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmeſt day in Paris is continual at Carthagena; the exceſſive heats raiſe the vapour of the ſea, which is precipitated in ſuch rains as ſeem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almoſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The ſoil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impoſſible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coaſts are generally barren ſand, and incapable of bearing any ſpecies of grain. The trees, moſt remarkable for their dimenſions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balſam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtile poiſon, againſt which common oil is found to be the beſt antidote. The malignity of this tree is ſuch, that if a perſon only ſleeps under it, he finds his body all ſwelled, and racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts from inſtinct alone avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond, but leſs white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous vipers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly in Terra Firma rich mines of gold, which are now in a great meaſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines have been ſince opened; and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the ſouthern parts. Among thoſe peculiar to the South, the moſt remarkable is the ſloth, or as it is called by way of deriſion, the ſwift Peter. It bears a reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plantive, and at the ſame time, ſo diſagreable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion,

which is always attended with diſguſtful howling, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himſelf in a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter, and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the tail, on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes, but where two or three people are together, they uſually ſcamper away.

NATIVES.] Beſides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general deſcription of the Americans, there is another ſpecies of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary Indians. Their diſpoſitions too are more ſoft and effeminate; but what principally diſtinguiſhes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moon-light, and from which they are called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. } We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from thoſe of Mexico. To what we have already obſerved, therefore, it is only neceſſary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variouſly intermixed with the negroes and Indians. Theſe intermixtures form different gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each other, becauſe every perſon expects to be regarded, in proportion as a greater ſhare of the Spaniſh blood runs in his veins. The firſt diſtinction, ariſing from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to theſe are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with theſe and the whites, ariſe the Quarterones, who, though ſtill nearer the former, are diſgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of theſe and the whites are the Quinterones, who, it is ſaid, are not to be diſtinguiſhed from the real Spaniards, but by being of a ſtill fairer complexion. The ſame gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes, and beſides theſe, there are a thouſand others, hardly diſtinguiſhable by the natives themſelves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the moſt conſiderable cities in Spaniſh America. In them are held the annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandiſe of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. The fiſhing for theſe, employs a great number of negro ſlaves, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are ſometimes, however, devoured by fiſh, particularly the ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico.

P E R U.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1800	between	the equator and 25 ſouth latitude.	970,000.
Breadth	600		60 and 81 weſt longitude.	

Boundaries. BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains or Cordeleirias des Andes, Eaſt; by Chili, South; and by the Pacific Ocean, Weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The North diviſion,	Quito — —	Quito Payta
The Middle diviſion,	Lima, or Los Reyes	Lima, 76-49 W. lon. 12-11 S. lat. Cuſco, and Callao
The South diviſion,	Los Charcos —	Potoſi Porco.

Seas, bays, and harbours.] The only ſea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Coſma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

Rivers.] There is a river whoſe waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granada, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, riſe in the Andes. Many other rivers riſe alſo in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight degrees S. lat.

Petrifying waters.] There are ſome waters, which, in their courſe, cover whatever they touch or paſs over, with ſtone; and here are fountains of liquid matter called coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by the ſeamen for the ſame purpoſes.

Soil and climate.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one ſide the South-Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not ſo ſtifled with heat as the other tropical countries. The ſky too, which is generally cloudy, ſhields them from the direct rays of the ſun: but what is extremely ſingular, it never rains in Peru. The defect, however, is ſufficiently ſupplied by a ſoft kindly dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and ſo refreſhes the plants and graſs, as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility. Along the ſea-coaſt, Peru is generally a dry barren ſand, except near the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

Animal, vegetable, and mineral productions.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are continually decaying, and new ones continually opening. The towns ſhift with the mines. That of

Potoſi, which is now much exhauſted, once contained 90,000 ſouls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were ſix to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no leſs remarkable for its fineneſs than for the animals on which it grows; theſe they call Lamas and Vicunnas. The lama has a ſmall head, reſembling that of a horſe and a ſheep at the ſame time. It is about the ſize of a ſtag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it ſpits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The fleſh of the lama is agreeable and ſalutary, and the animal is not only uſeful in affording wool and food, but alſo as a beaſt of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the ſteepeſt mountains with a burden of ſixty or ſeventy pounds. It feeds very ſparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is ſmaller and ſwifter than the lama, and produces wool ſtill finer in quality. In the vicunna is found the bezoar ſtone, regarded as a ſpecific againſt poiſons. The next great article is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jeſuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The beſt bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds: the tree which bears it, is about the ſize of a cherry-tree, and produces a kind of fruit reſembling the almond. But it is only the bark which has thoſe excellent qualities that render it ſo uſeful in intermitting fevers, and other diſorders, to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greateſt abundance in the vale of Arica, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts of Peru, from whence it is annually exported, to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewiſe the only part of South America which produces quickſilver; an article of immenſe value, conſidering the various purpoſes to which it is applied, and eſpecially the purification of gold and ſilver. The principal mine is at a place called Guancavelica, diſcovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitiſh maſs, reſembling brick ill burned. This ſubſtance is volatiliſed by fire, and received in ſteam by a combination of glaſs veſſels, where it condenſes by means of a little water at the bottom of each veſſel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join thoſe articles, becauſe of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we ſhall deſcribe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. Lima is the capital of Peru; its ſituation, in the middle of a ſpacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the moſt proper for a city, which he expected would preſerve his memory. It is ſo well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like thoſe of London, command a ſtream, each for his own uſe. There are many very magnificent ſtructures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houſes in general are built of ſlight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering ſtone houſes unneceſſary; and beſides, it is found that theſe are more apt to ſuffer by ſhocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the ſea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a ſixth part. One remarkable fact is ſufficient to demonſtrate the wealth of the city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, cauſed the ſtreets to be paved with ingots of ſilver, amounting, it is ſaid, to ſeventeen millions ſterling. All travellers ſpeak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, which load and ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be ſaid to deal with all the quarters of the world,

and

and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the ſouthern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for ſuch articles as the inhabitants of Peru ſtand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the Eaſt Indies, land at the ſame harbour, and the commodities of Aſia, Europe, and America, are bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchaſe on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouſes, knowing that they muſt ſoon find an outlet for them, ſince by one channel or other they have a communication with almoſt every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the ſituation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not ſufficient to compenſate for one diſaſter which always threatens, and has ſometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a moſt tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port-town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more terrible or complete, not more than one of three thouſand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by an accident the moſt extraordinary.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt terror and confuſion; the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, and buried the inhabitants for ever in its boſom; but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town drove a little boat to the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf, and was ſaved.

Cuſco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ſea, it has been long on the decline. But it is ſtill a very conſiderable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo, both here and at Quito, a particular taſte for painting; and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is like Cuſco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT. It would be in vain to pretend ſaying any thing deciſive with regard to the number of the inhabitants of Peru. The Spaniards themſelves are remarkably ſilent on this head. It has been gueſſed by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs are the two predominant paſſions. It is ſaid, by the moſt authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other deſcendants of the Spaniards, according to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Caſtilian regards with deteſtation. This, no doubt, in part ariſes from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents; and many of the firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The

viceroy

viceroy is as abſolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neceſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral audiences or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury court eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1200	between	25 and 45 ſouth latitude.	206,000.
Breadth 500		65 and 85 weſt longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru, on the North; by La Plata, on the Eaſt; by Patagonia, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
On the weſt ſide of the Andes	Chili Proper — —	St. Jago, W. lon. 77. S. lat. 34.
		Baldivia.
		Imperial.
On the eaſt ſide of the Andes	Cuyo, or Cutio —	St. John de Frontieræ.

LAKES.] The principal lakes are thoſe of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Beſides which, they have ſeveral ſalt-water lakes, that have a communication with the ſea, part of the year. In ſtormy weather the ſea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fiſh; but in the hot ſeaſon the water congeals, leaving a cruſt of fine white ſalt a foot thick.

SEAS, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific Ocean on the weſt. The principal rivers are, the Salado, or Salt River, Guaſco, Caquimbo, Bohio, aud the Baldivia, ſcarcely navigable but at their mouths; they fall into the Pacific Ocean.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Copiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariſo, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Caſtro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Theſe are not remarkably different from the ſame in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with reſpect to the gifts of Nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all ſpecies of grain, of which a conſiderable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions

tions are the ſame with thoſe of Peru; and they have gold almoſt in every river, ſuppoſed to be waſhed down from the hills.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are ſtill in a great meaſure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preſervation from the Spaniſh yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with reſpect to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not ſuppoſed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been ſome formidable inſurrections againſt the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spaniſh court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico. To the former they annually export corn ſufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raiſed in no other part of the South-Seas; hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions; they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, OR, LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1500 Breadth 1000	between	12 and 37 ſouth latitude. 50 and 75 weſt longitude.	1,000,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia, on the North; by Braſil, Eaſt; by Patagonia, on the South; and by Peru and Chili, Weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt diviſion contains	Paraguay — — Parana — — Guaira — — Uragua — —	Aſſumption St. Anne Cividad Real Los Royes
South diviſion	Tucuman — — Rio de la Plata —	St. Jago BUENOS AYRES, Weſt lon. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Carocoroes, is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their

their banks; and, on their receſs, leave them enriched with a ſlime, that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued, or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued plain for ſeveral hundred miles, extremely fertile, and produces cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and the prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the carcaſe being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the uſual price of a bullock, choſen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But contrary to the general nature of America, this country is deſtitute of woods. The air is remarkable ſweet and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE. The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country, by ſailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, fifty leagues within its mouth, where it is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes hither as to the other parts of South America; two, or at moſt three, regiſter ſhips make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar, and hides. Thoſe who have carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe in ſuch parts of Braſil, as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, ſo that nothing farther need be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without mentioning that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth, which the Jeſuits erected in the interior parts, and concerning which theſe crafty prieſts have endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of the laſt century, thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that the want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians. They inſinuated that, were it not for thoſe obſtacles, the empire of the goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs; the ſphere of their labours was marked out, and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders, not to interfere, nor to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale, without licences from the fathers. They on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhall be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle; and they united them into a little townſhip.

ſhip. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure which has amazed the world, and added much power, at the ſame time that it occaſioned much envy againſt their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and ſuch maſterly policy, that, by degrees they mollified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations; fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion, and theſe ſoon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the Fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with preciſion all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of men. The Jeſuits left nothing undone that could confirm their ſubjection, or that could increaſe their number; and it is ſaid that above 340,000 families lived in obedience and expreſſed an awe, bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint: that the Indians were inſtructed in the military art, and could raiſe 60,000 men well armed: that they lived in towns; were regularly clad; laboured in agriculture, exerciſed manufactures; ſome even aſpired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal their ſubmiſſion to authority, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of theſe jeſuits with great ſeverity; accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe not only perſons of both ſexes, but even the magiſtrates, who were always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and by ſuffering perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdictions, to kiſs the hem of their garments, as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſſed large property, all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country was brought to them, and the treaſures annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order, ſeemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive for forming theſe miſſions. The Fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal in exchange for Saint Sacrament, to make the Uragua the boundary of their poſſeſſions, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. We were informed by the Spaniſh Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were ſent to quell them; and in 1767, the Jeſuits were removed from America, by royal authority, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The iſland of Cuba is ſituated between 19 and 23 degrees north lat. and between 74 and 87 degrees weſt lon. 100 miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt: but the land near the ſea is in general level, and flooded in the rainy

ſeaſon, when the ſun is vertical. This noble iſland is ſuppoſed to have the beſt ſoil, for ſo large a country, of any in America. It produces all the commodities known in the Weſt Indies, paricularly ginger, long-pepper, and other ſpices, caſſia, fiſtula, muſtic, and aloes. It alſo produces tobacco and ſugar; but from the want of hands, and the lazineſs of the Spaniards, not in ſuch quantities as might be expected. It is ſaid that its exports do not equal in quantity thoſe of our ſmall iſland of Antigua.

The courſe of the rivers is too ſhort to be of any conſequence; but there are ſeveral good harbours, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, ſtrongly ſituated and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital of Cuba, and a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perſeverance of the Engliſh troops in the year 1762, but reſtored in the ſubſequent treaty of peace. Beſides theſe, there is likewiſe Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a conſiderable town thirty miles eaſt of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This iſland was firſt poſſeſſed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the moſt coſiderable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original poſſeſſors, and ſtill continue to have a ſhare in it, Hiſpaniola is commonly regarded as a Spaniſh iſland.

It is ſituated between the 17th and 21ſt degrees north lat. and 67th and 74th of weſt lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt one million. But ſuch was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry their oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle have ſo much multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for the hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren part of the rocks they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines, however, are not now worked. The north-weſt parts, which are in poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The moſt ancient town in this iſland, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is ſometimes named, eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large, well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, meſtizoes, and negroes.

The French towns are, Cape St. Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government. They have two other towns conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and Port Lewis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above mentioned places are not leſs in value than 1,200,000l. They likewiſe carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spaniſh dollars.

"In the night between the 22d and 23d of Auguſt 1791, a moſt alarming inſurrection of the negroes began, on the French plantations upon this iſland. A ſcene of the moſt horrid cruelties enſued. In a little time, no leſs than one hundred thouſand negroes were in rebellion, and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains are filled with carnage, and deluged with blood. The coloniſts, ſtupified with fear, know not where to ſeek refuge; one flies for ſafety to the woods; is there betrayed by his negroes and ſtabbed; another confides in the promiſes of his ſlaves; a rebel ring-leader ſteals in among them; the gang riſes and the proprietor is their victim.

Scattered over a ſurface of land; interſected by mountains and deep vallies, the flying inhabitants attempt to rally, and to ſell their lives dearly. The roads are obſtructed, and they are taken and maſſacred.

Thoſe who re-unite, oppoſe but a feeble bulwark, againſt the ſwelling torrent; they are diſperſed and taken; and expiate in tortures their exertions for ſelf preſervation. Theſe horrible ſcenes were acting at the gate of the town of the Cape. Terror and diſmay take poſſeſſion of every mind; yet all feel the urgency of providing for their ſafety, of taking arms, and of acting under the command of the governor.

What the iſſue will be it is impoſſible to ſay. More than one thouſand of the French have already fallen the victims of this cruel revolt, and perhaps fifteen thouſand negroes will be deſtroyed before order and tranquillity be re-eſtabliſhed. But ſhould they ſucceed in their projects, St. Domingo will become the tomb of fifty thouſand Frenchmen."

Only one reflection we ſhall make from the above facts, which is that the ſituation of theſe unhappy negroes; men as well as their maſters, and who have as good a right to the liberty of independence as they have, will very much extenuate ſome of the enormities which they committed; enormities which will not bear a mention with thoſe which theſe poor ſufferers have received from their tyrants in their firſt captivity, and in the ſubſequent hard treatment they have had. Let the proprietors of theſe ſlaves aſk themſelves, whether, had theſe negroes carried them as ſlaves into Africa, they would not have thought it a noble effort to endeavour to regain their freedom. Every man feels the anſwer which would be given: and that anſwer will place the conduct of theſe Africans in its proper point of light.

PORTO-RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 degrees weſt lon. and in 18 degrees north lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains; and extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the iſland is unhealthful in the rainy ſeaſons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards ſettled here; but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of this metal found in it.

PORTO-RICO, the capital town, ſtands in a little iſland on the north ſide, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief iſland by a cauſey, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible. It was, however, taken by ſir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh towns, becauſe it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the king of Spain's ſubjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the eaſt end of Porto Rico, are extremely ſmall.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 degrees weſt lon. and in 10 degrees north lat. lies between the iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main; from which it is ſeparated by the ſtraits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthy, but fruitful ſoil, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by ſir Walter Raleigh, in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the iſland, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situate in 64 degrees weſt lon. and 11-30 north lat. ſeparated from the northern coaſt of New Andaluſia, in Terra Firma, by a ſtrait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. The iſland abounds in paſture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a ſcarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fiſhery on its coaſt, which is now diſcontinued.

There are many other ſmall iſlands in thoſe ſeas, which the Spaniards have neglected. We ſhall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any importance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor, and ſome harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 degrees weſt lon. and 33 ſouth lat. 300 miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is uninhabited; but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at and water; and here they are in no danger of being diſcovered, unleſs when, as is generally the caſe, their arrival in the ſouth ſeas, and their motions have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends at Braſil. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. It ſeems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotſman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, until he was diſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up he had forgotten his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in goat's ſkins, would drink nothing but water, and was ſome time before he could reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anſon's people; their venerable aſpect and majeſtic beards diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is ſaid to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of thoſe papers, and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; ſo that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigeſted for publication, and Defoe perhaps derived little from them, but thoſe hints which gave riſe to his own celebrated performance.

The other iſlands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago iſles, ſituated 400 miles weſt of Peru, under the equator; and thoſe in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Iſlands.

PORTU-

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

CONTAINING BRASIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2500 Breadth 700	between	the equator and 35 ſouth latitude. 35 and 60 weſt longitude.	940,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the ſame ocean, on the Eaſt; by the mouth of the river Plata, South; and by a chain of mountains, which divided it from Paraguay and the country of Amazons, on the Weſt.

On the coaſt are three ſmall iſlands, where ſhips touch for proviſions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catherine's.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
North diviſion contains the captainſhips of	Para — — —	Para or Belim
	Marignan — —	St. Lewis
	Siara — — —	Siara
	Petagues — —	St Luc
	Rio Grande — —	Tignares
	Payraba — — —	Payraba
	Tamara — — —	Tamara
	Pernambuco — —	Olinda
Middle diviſion contains the captainſhips of	Serigippe — —	Serigippe
	Bahai, or the Bay of All-Saints	St. Salvador
	Ilheos — — —	Paya
	Porto Seguro — —	Porto Seguro
	Spirito Sancto — —	Spirito Sancto
Southern diviſion contains the captainſhips of	Rio Janeiro — —	St. Sebaſtian
	St. Vincent — —	St. Vincent
	Del Rey — —	St. Salvador.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES. The Atlantic Ocean waſhes the coaſt of Braſil on the north-eaſt and eaſt, upwards of 3000 miles, forming ſeveral fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Pernambuco, All-Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north ſhore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Auguſtine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Braſil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE, AND RIVERS. The name of Braſil was given to this country, becauſe it abounded with a wood of that name. To the northward of Braſil, which lies almoſt under the equator, the climate is hot, boiſterous, and unwholeſome, ſubject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have ſuch deluges of rain, with ſtorms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the ſouthward, beyond

yond the tropic of capricorn, no part of the world enjoys a more ſerene and wholeſome air, refreſhed with the ſoft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coaſt is in general low, but exceedingly pleaſant, interſperſed with meadows and woods; on the weſt, far within land, are mountains from which iſſue many noble ſtreams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata, others running acroſs the country from eaſt to weſt till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the ſugar mills belonging to the Portugueſe.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the ſoil is extremely fruitful, producing ſugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muſcovado, as we call our unrefined ſugar. Alſo tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balſam of Copaiba, Braſil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly uſed in dying, but not the red of the beſt kind; it has likewiſe ſome place in medicine, as a ſtomachic and reſtringent.

The animals here are the ſame as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the ſoil was found very ſufficient for ſubſiſting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were diſcovered; theſe with the ſugar plantations, occupy ſo many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in conſequence, Braſil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and cuſtoms of the Portugueſe in America, by the moſt judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are deſcribed as a people, who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate luxury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and diſſembling; without ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhew, ſtate, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety, and of a good table; yet their feaſts, which are rare, are ſumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cauſe themſelves to be carried in a kind of cotton hammocks, called ſerpentines, which are borne on the negroes ſhoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour; they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of teſter, with curtains; ſo that the perſon carried cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may lie down or ſit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen, he pulls the curtains aſide, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the two ſlaves who carry them, make uſe of ſtrong rods, forked above and pointed below with iron; theſe they ſtick faſt in the ground, and on them reſts the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, till their maſter's buſineſs or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of faſhion, or any lady will paſs the ſtreets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the ſame excluſive plan on which the ſeveral nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly reſembles the ancient Spaniſh method, in not ſending out ſingle ſhips, as the convenience of the ſeveral places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which ſail at ſtated times from Portugal, and compoſe three flotas, bound to as many ports in Braſil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the ſouthern extremity; and to the Bay of All-Saints, in the middle.

In this laſt is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and ſometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city com-

commands a noble, ſpacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon one ſide, and a lake forming a creſcent, inveſting it almoſt wholly ſo as nearly to join the ſea, on the other. The ſituation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have beſides added to it very ſtrong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond compariſon the moſt gay and opulent city in all Braſil.

The trade of Braſil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is the leſs ſurpriſing, as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has ſettlements in America; they being the only Europeans who have eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Braſil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is ſuppoſed to be returned to Europe to the value of 130,000l.

This, with the ſugar, the tobacco, the hides, the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give ſome idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ſhips carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part the produce of Portugal; they conſiſt of woollen goods, of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the ſilks of France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals, from England; as well as ſalt fiſh, beef, flour and cheeſe. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal. England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption and the uſe of the Braſils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Braſil is a very wealthy and flouriſhing ſettlement. Their export of ſugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almoſt the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkable good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in the American colonies. The northern and ſouthern parts of Braſil abound with horned cattle: theſe are hunted for their hides only, of which no leſs than 20,000 are ſent annually to Europe.

The Portugueſe had been long in poſſeſſion of Braſil before they diſcovered the treaſures of gold and diamonds, which have ſince made it ſo valuable. Their fleets rendezvous in the bay of All-Saints, to the amount of 100 ſail of large ſhips, in May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the Spaniſh flota and galeons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions ſterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony, and ivory.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] This country was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſio, in 1498, but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themſelves at the Bay of All-Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with ſome interruption at firſt from the court of Spain, who conſidered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and La Plata, which they ſtill enjoy. The French alſo made ſome attempts to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of their proſperity, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows, which inſtantly decides the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebaſtian, the

king of Portugal, loſt his life and army, in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portugueſe loſt their independance, being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

The Dutch ſoon after this, having thrown off the Spaniſh yoke, and not ſatisfied with ſupporting their independency by a ſucceſsful defenſive war, and fluſhed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, they purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the ſpoils of their former maſters. They particularly attacked the poſſeſſions of the Portugueſe; they took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Braſil, where they took ſeven of the captainſhips or provinces; and would have ſubdued the whole colony, had not their career been ſtopt by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch were, however, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Braſil; but their Weſt-India company ſtill continuing their pretenſions to this country, and harraſſing the Portugueſe at ſea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country, which was accepted; and the Portugueſe have remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Braſil from that time, till about the end of 1762, when the Spaniſh governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE poſſeſſions and claims of the French before the war of 1756, as appears by their maps, conſiſted of almoſt the whole continent of North America; which vaſt country they divided into two great provinces, the northern of which they called Canada, comprehending a much greater extent than the Britiſh province of that name, ſince it included a great part of the provinces of New York, New England, and Nova Scotia. The ſouthern province they called Louiſiana, in which they included a part of Carolina. This diſtribution, and the military diſpoſitions, which the French made to ſupport it, formed the principal cauſe of the war between Great Britain and France, in the year 1756, the iſſue of which is well known. While the French were rearing their infant colonies, and with the moſt ſanguine hopes forming vaſt deſigns of an extenſive empire, one wrong ſtep in their politics loſt them the whole, for by commencing hoſtilities many years too ſoon, they were driven from Canada, and forced to yield to Great Britain, all that fine country of Louiſiana eaſtward of the Miſſiſſippi. At the treaty of peace, however they were allowed to keep poſſeſſion of the weſtern banks of that river, and the ſmall town of New Orleans, near the mouth of it; which territories in 1769, they ceded to Spain, for reaſons unknown to the public.

The French, therefore, from being one of the greateſt European powers in that quarter, and to the American colonies a very dangerous neighbour and rival, have now loſt all footing in North America; but on the ſouthern continent they have ſtill a ſettlement which is called

CAYENNE, OR EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

IT is ſituated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of weſt longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, Eaſt; by Amazonia, South; and by Guiana, Weſt. The chief town is Caen.

All the coaſt is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for ſettlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them ſo far as they might; but they raiſe the ſame commodities which they have from the Weſt India iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantity. They have alſo taken poſſeſſion of the iſland of Cayenne, on this coaſt, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The iſland is very unhealthy; but having ſome good harbours, the French have here ſome ſettlements, which raiſe ſugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were among the laſt nations who made ſettlements in the Weſt Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they purſued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate affords; and in contending againſt the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are ſenſible that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquiſitions, the proſperity of their plantations muſt be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reaſon, the plantations are particularly under the care and inſpection of the council of commerce, a board compoſed of twelve of the moſt conſiderable officers of the crown, aſſiſted by the deputies of all the conſiderable trading towns and cities in France, who are choſen from the richeſt and moſt intelligent of their traders, and allowed a handſome ſalary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their reſpective cities. This council ſits once a week, when the deputies propoſe plans for the redreſſing every grievance of trade, for raiſing the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the work, or promote the vent, of their manufactures. When they are all ſatisfied of the uſefulneſs of any regulation, they propoſe it to the royal council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to inforce it accordingly iſſues; and is executed with a punctuality that diſtinguiſhes their government.

The internal government of their colonies is intruſted to a governor, an intendant, and a royal council. The governor is inveſted with a great deal of power; which, however, on the ſide of the crown, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of the king's rights, and whatever relates to the revenue: and on the ſide of the people, it is checked by the royal council, whoſe office it is to ſee that the people are not oppreſſed by one, nor defrauded by the other: and they are all checked by the conſtant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them; the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the ſevereſt penalties, to interrogate all captains of ſhips coming from the colonies, what reception they met with at the ports to which they ſailed? how juſtice was adminiſtered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as poſſible, and that the governor may have leſs temptation to ſtir up troubleſome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his ſalary is paid by the crown: he has no perquiſites, and is ſtrictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the iſlands or on the continent; or any intereſt whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the houſe he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid by the crown, out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the ſoldiers paid out of the ſame funds.

In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes are raiſed, they are always very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce at the Weſt-India iſlands, or at its import into France, are next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. The commodities ſent to the iſlands pay no duties at all. Their other regulations, reſpecting the judges of the admiralty, law-ſuits, recovery of debts, lenity to ſuch as have ſuffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad ſeaſons, the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and laſtly, the management of negroes, cannot be ſufficiently admired; and might be imitated with great advantage by their neighbours.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, as the moſt important and valuable of all their foreign ſettlements, and which they poſſeſs through the indolence of the Spaniards on that iſland, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We ſhall next proceed to the iſlands of which the French have the ſole poſſeſſion, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO.] Which is ſituated between 14 and 15 degrees of north lat. and in 61 degrees weſt lon. lying about 40 leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, and pours out on every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands. But ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico is the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in thoſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious; and ſo well fortified, that they often bade defiance to the Engliſh, till the war of 1756, when the Britiſh arms being triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in 16 degrees north lat. and 62 weſt lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almoſt as much ſouth of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry-boat. Its ſoil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This iſland is in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar almoſt incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the Engliſh, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the Britiſh arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. 80 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The Engliſh firſt ſettled here in 1637. From that time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; at length it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that St. Lucia, with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to ſettle theſe iſlands; which by the treaty of peace were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. The ſoil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds with pleaſant rivers, and well ſituated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain reſtrictions. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1778; but it was reſtored again to the French in 1783.

TOBAGO.] This iſland is ſituated in 11 degrees odd minutes, north lat. 120 miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes, that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kind of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appears from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; though by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain; but in June 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIEGALANTE. } Are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's; and of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our Weſt India trade. It would therefore be good policy in Great Britain, upon the breaking out of a war with France, immediately to take poſſeſſion of theſe iſlands, which would ſeem to be a matter of no great difficulty, as they have been frequently reduced by the Engliſh, and as frequently given back to the French; who have often experienced the generoſity of the Britiſh court. St. Bartholomew is now to be conſidered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France, 1785.

The ſmall iſlands of ST. PIERRE and MIQUELON, ſituated near Newfoundland, belonging to France, have been already mentioned with that iſland.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portugueſe had diſpoſſeſſed the Dutch of Braſil in the manner we have ſeen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to conſole themſelves with their rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once poſſeſſed by the Engliſh, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh Main.

Dutch Guiana, is ſituate between five and ſeven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable part of the coaſt is low, and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. This is one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a leſs proſperous ſituation than it was ſome years ſince, owing, among other cauſes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become ſo numerous, having increaſed from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in woods almoſt inacceſſible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former maſters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themſelves, they have cultivated lands for their ſubſiſtence, and make frequent incurſions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, and ſome valuable dying drugs. The North American colonies bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions; and take home a large quantity of molaſſes.

Connected with Surinam, we ſhall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Iſſequibo on the Spaniſh Main, which ſurrendered to the Engliſh in the year 1781, and were repreſented as a very valuable acquiſition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the Britiſh Weſt India iſlands united. But the report was either not believed or ſlighted, for theſe places were left defenceleſs, and ſoon retaken by a French frigate.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana, are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people, has likewiſe generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours immutably depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either Whites, Indians, or Negroes. Theſe are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with ſeveral intermediate ſubdiviſions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourſe.

There are ſo great a number of birds, of various ſpecies and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in this colony have employed themſelves advantageouſly, with their ſlaves and dependents, in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of naturaliſts in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular

kinds

kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock reſembling that of electricity. There are an immenſe number and variety of ſnakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A ſnake was killed ſome years ſince, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, eſq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largeſt place, near the middle, was three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana, is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a ſmall amphibious creature, about the ſize of a pig four months old, covered with fine ſhort hair; and its fleſh, by the Europeans who reſide here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA.] SItuated in 17° 29′ N. lat. 63° 10′ W. lon. and three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea, like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But, though ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch have made it turn to very good account; and is ſaid to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountain are diſpoſed in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade; and both places generally profited by their neutrality. But when hoſtilities were commenced by Great Britain againſt Holland, admiral Rodney and general Vaughan were ſent with a conſiderable land and ſea force againſt St. Euſtatius, which being incapable of defence, ſurrendered at diſcretion, on the 3d of February 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Engliſh nation uſed to be characteriſed. The reaſon aſſigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Euſtatius had aſſiſted the revolted colonies with naval and other ſtores. But on the 27th of November, the ſame year, St. Euſtatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouillé, though their force conſiſted of only three frigates and ſome ſmall craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. The iſland is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America: yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt, and at the ſame time the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar; it has beſides, good ſalt-works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants

and

and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch here for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda-coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, proportioned to their reſpective ranks, and ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, ſilks, ribbands, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the callicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt India, which is alſo their African company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers ſhops, and every thing that is grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jeſuit's bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in times of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000 l. but in time of war, the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt Indies: it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarcely any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied either with ſlaves or goods. The French come thither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North America, or exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt India company alone: at preſent, ſuch of the ſhips as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licences: the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martin's, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatius, were both captured by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, at the time when Euſtatius ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain, but were afterwards retaken by the French.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable member of the Caribbees, ſituated in 64 degrees weſt lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt India company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and other of the Weſt India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh Main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As to Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle very faſt. Several perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of conſiderable property have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement.

Theſe two nations, the Dutch and Danes, hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there are comparatively nothing. But as they appear extremely worthy of the attention of theſe powers, and as the ſhare of the Dutch is worth to them at leaſt 600,000 l. a year, what muſt we think of our extenſive and valuable poſſeſſions? What attention do they not deſerve from us? and what may not be made of them by that attention?

"There ſeems to be a remarkable providence (ſays an ingenious and polite writer), in caſting the parts, if I may uſe the expreſſion, of the ſeveral European nations who act upon the ſtage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate; a ſoft climate to indulge his love of eaſe, and a profuſion of gold and ſilver to procure him all thoſe luxuries his pride demands, but which his lazineſs would refuſe him.

"The Portugueſe, naturally indigent at home, and enterpriſing rather than induſtrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniards has, wants them as he does, but poſſeſſes them in a more uſeful, though a leſs oſtentatious manner.

"The Engliſh, of a reaſoning diſpoſition, thoughtful and cool, and men of buſineſs rather than of great induſtry, impatient of much fruitleſs labour, abhorrent of conſtraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor ſilver, but they have a large tract of a fine continent; a noble field for the exerciſe of agriculture, and ſufficient to furniſh their trade without laying them under great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the moſt uſeful reſtraints, their commerce flouriſhes from the freedom every man has of purſuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own faſhion.

"The French, active, lively, enterpriſing, pliable, and politic; and though changing their purſuits, always purſuing the preſent object with eagerneſs, are, notwithſtanding tractable, and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their diſpoſitions, and wind and turn them to proper courſes. Theſe people had a country (when Canada was in their poſſeſſion) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that re-

quires conſtant motion, flouriſhes more than agriculture, or a regular traffic; where they had difficulties which kept them alert by ſtruggling with them, and where their obedience to a wiſe government (meaning the excellent regulations already mentioned reſpecting the French colonies in America) ſerves them for perſonal wiſdom. In the iſlands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

"The Dutch have a rock or two, on which to diſplay the miracles of frugality and diligence, (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted theſe virtues, and ſhewn thoſe miracles."

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been conſiderably augmented by the late diſcoveries of the Ruſſians, and ſtill more by thoſe that have been made by Britiſh navigators in the preſent reign, which have been numerous and important: and of theſe diſcoveries we ſhall therefore here give a compendious account.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS conſiſts of ſeveral groups of iſlands, lying between the eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka and the weſtern coaſt of the continent of America*. Mr. Muller divides theſe iſlands into four principal groups, the two firſt of which are ſtyled the Aleutian iſlands. The firſt group, which is called by ſome of the iſlanders Safignan, comprehends, 1. Beering's Iſland. 2. Copper Iſland. 3. Otma. 4. Samyra, or Shemiya. 5. Anakta. The ſecond group is called Khao, and comprizes eight iſlands, viz. 1. Immak, 2. Kiſka, 3. Tchetchia, 4. Ava, 5. Kavia, 6. Tſchangulak, 7. Ulagama, 8. Amtchidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the iſlands known to the Ruſſians under the name of Andreanoffſki Oſtrova: ſixteen of which are mentioned under the following names; 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotſha; 5. Uliga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illaſk, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has alſo a volcano; 11. Ieg; 12. Skeſhuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Goreloi; 15. Otchu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends ſixteen iſlands; which are called by the Ruſſians *Lyſſie Oſtrova* or the *Fox Iſlands*; and which are named, 1. Amuchta; 2. Tſchigama; 3. Tſchegula; 4. Uniſtra; 5. Ulaga; 6. Tanagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alaſhka; 12. Unimga; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo-Leiſſume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

* Mr. Coxe obſerves, that, "the firſt project for making diſcoveries in that tempeſtuous ſea, which lies between Kamtſchatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expence of the crown: but when it was diſcovered, that the iſlands in that ſea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in ſimilar expeditions: and, within a period of ten years, more important diſcoveries were made by theſe individuals, at their own private coſt, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The inveſtigation of uſeful knowledge has alſo been greatly encouraged by the preſent empreſs of Ruſſia; and the moſt diſtant parts of her vaſt dominions, and other countries and iſlands, have been explored, at her expence, by perſons of abilities and learning, in conſequence of which conſiderable diſcoveries have been made.

Some of theſe iſlands are only inhabited occaſionally, and for ſome months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who conſtantly reſide in them. Copper Iſland receives its name from the copper which the ſea throws upon its coaſts. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are, in general, of a ſhort ſtature, with ſtrong and robuſt limbs, but free and ſupple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattiſh faces, and fair ſkins. They are for the moſt part well made, and of ſtrong conſtitutions, ſuitable to the boiſterous climate of their iſles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian iſles live upon roots which grow wild, and ſea-animals. They do not employ themſelves in catching fiſh, though the rivers abound with all kinds of ſalmon, and the ſea with turbot. Their cloaths are made of the ſkins of birds, and of ſea-otters.

The Fox iſlands are ſo called from the great number of black, grey and red foxes with which they abound. The dreſs of the inhabitants conſiſts of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird ſkin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore-part of their hunting and fiſhing-caps, they place a ſmall board like a ſkreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of ſea-bears, and ornamented with glaſs beads, which they receive in barter from the Ruſſians. At their feſtivals and dancing-parties they uſe a much more ſhewy ſort of caps. They feed upon the fleſh of all ſorts of ſea-animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they chooſe to dreſs their victuals, they make uſe of a hollow ſtone; having placed the fiſh or fleſh therein, they cover it with another, and cloſe the interſtices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two ſtones, and light a fire under it. The proviſions, intended for keeping are dried without ſalt in the open air. Their weapons conſiſt of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they uſe wooden ſhields.

The moſt perfect equality reigns among theſe iſlanders. They have neither chiefs nor ſuperiors, neither laws nor puniſhments. They live together in families, and ſocieties of ſeveral families united, which form what they call a race, who, in caſe of an attack, or defence, mutually help and ſupport each other. The inhabitants of the ſame iſland always pretend to be of the ſame race; and every perſon looks upon this iſland as a poſſeſſion, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the ſame ſociety. Feaſts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of the others. The men of the village meet their gueſts beating drums, and preceded by the women, who ſing and dance. At the concluſion of the dance, the hoſts ſerve up their beſt proviſions, and invite their gueſts to partake of the feaſt. They feed their children when very young with the coarſeſt fleſh, and for the moſt part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the ſea-ſide, and, whether it be ſummer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This cuſtom is ſo far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them againſt the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the leaſt inconvenience. They ſeldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are deſirous of warming themſelves, they light a bundle of hay, and ſtand over it; or elſe they ſet fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow ſtone. They have a good ſhare of plain natural ſenſe, but are rather ſlow of underſtanding. They ſeem cold and indifferent in moſt of their actions; but let an injury, or even a ſuſpicion only rouſe them from this phlegmatic ſtate, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the moſt violent revenge, without regard to conſequences. The leaſt affliction prompts them to ſuicide, the apprehenſion of even an uncertain evil often leads them to deſpair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent inſenſibility.

The Diſcovery of an INLAND SEA, containing a great Number of ISLANDS in NORTH AMERICA.

FROM the obſervations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the weſtern part of America, about the latitude of 64° north, it appeared that a ſtrong ſimilarity appeared between them and the Eſquimaux on the Eaſtern coaſt. Hence it was even then conjectured, that a communication by ſea exiſted between the eaſtern and weſtern ſides of that continent.

In this part of America, however, a moſt ſurpriſing diſcovery has lately been made, which, when properly authenticated, cannot fail to be of the utmoſt utility, not only to ſcience in general, but to the commercial and political intereſts of mankind; not to ſay, that it will undoubtedly contribute, by giving an opportunity for the advancement of civilization, to their moral intereſts alſo. This, though not made by captain Cook himſelf, took place in conſequence of his diſcoveries on the northweſt continent of America. In theſe parts he found that ſuch quantities of valuable furs might be purchaſed from the inhabitants, as promiſed to be a very profitable article of commerce, provided any regular connection could be eſtabliſhed between that part of the world, and the Britiſh ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies. This taſk was quickly undertaken by ſome ſpirited adventurers, who unluckily have found themſelves oppoſed both by *friends* and *foes*, viz. the Eaſt India company, and the Spaniards; the former pretending that they had no right to diſpoſe of furs in the Eaſt Indies, and the latter, that they had none to bring them from the weſtern coaſt of America. By one Mr. Etches, who fitted out ſhips for this purpoſe, it was diſcovered that all the weſtern coaſt of America, from the latitude of 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of iſlands which had never been explored, and that theſe concealed the entrance to a vaſt inland ſea like the Baltic, or Mediterranean in Europe, and which ſeems likewiſe to be full of iſlands *. Among theſe, Mr. Etches' ſhip, the Princeſs Royal, penetrated ſeveral hundred leagues in a north-eaſt direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudſon's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the Archipelago, juſt mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new Mediterranean ſea. From what they really did diſcover, however, it is probable, that there may this way be a communication with Hudſon's-bay, in which caſe, the northweſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies will be found through ſeas much more navigable than thoſe in which it has hitherto been attempted. The iſlands, which they explored, were all inhabited by tribes of Indians, who appeared very friendly, and well diſpoſed to carry on a commerce. Of theſe iſlands upwards of fifty were viſited, and we are informed, that ſome ſhips are now fitting out at one of the ports of England for the ſame place, ſo that farther diſcoveries may ſoon be expected.

* In our map of North America, an iſland is laid down at the entrance of the river of the weſt, north latitude 45°, and weſt longitude 130°, the place where this diſcovery is ſaid to have been made.

THE

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE exiſtence and ſituation of theſe iſlands were probably known to the Spaniards at a diſtant period; but from a report among the neighbouring iſlands of their being inhabited by a ſavage race of cannibals, it appears that there had never been the leaſt communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope packet (belonging to the Eaſt India Company) was wrecked on one of them, in Auguſt 1783. From the accounts given of theſe iſlands, by captain Wilſon, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are ſituated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of eaſt longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce ſugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plaintains, bananas, oranges and lemons; and the ſurrounding ſeas abound with the fineſt and greateſt variety of fiſh.

The natives of theſe iſlands are a ſtout, well made people, above the middle ſtature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is underſtood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two ſmall aprons, one behind, and one before, made of the huſks of the cocoa nut, dyed with different ſhades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is abſolute, but his power is exerciſed more with the mildneſs of a father than a ſovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occaſionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or Chiefs, and confers a ſingular honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are diſtinguiſhed by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea, which the account publiſhed by captain Wilſon gives us of theſe iſlanders, is that of a people, who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and ſciences, and living in the ſimpleſt ſtate of nature, yet poſſeſs all that genuine politeneſs, that delicacy, and chaſtity of intercourſe between the ſexes, that reſpect for perſonal property, that ſubordination to government, and thoſe habits of induſtry, which are ſo rarely united in the more civilized ſocieties of modern times.

It appears that when the Engliſh were thrown on one of theſe iſlands, they were received by the natives with the greateſt humanity and hoſpitality; and, till their departure, experienced the utmoſt courteſy and attention. "They felt our people were diſtreſſed, and in conſequence wiſhed they ſhould ſhare whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly magnificence that beſtows and ſpreads its favours with a diſtant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a ſcene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring, and whilſt their liberality gratified the ſenſe, their virtue ſtruck the heart."

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS

ARE five in number, firſt diſcovered by Quiros in 1595; and their ſituation better aſcertained by captain Cook in 1774. St. Dominica is the largeſt, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and cloth ing with the vegetable productions, are nearly the ſame as at the Society Iſles.

OTAHEITE, or KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS iſland was diſcovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin *, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is ſituated between the 17th degree 28 minutes, and the 17th degree 53 minutes, ſouth latitude; and between the 149th degree 11 minutes, and the 149 degree 39 minutes, weſt longitude. It conſiſts of two peninſulas, of a ſomewhat circular form, joined by an iſthmus, and is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form ſeveral excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almoſt any number of the largeſt ſhips. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almoſt entirely ſurrounds each peninſula, and behind this border the land riſes in ridges that run up into the middle of theſe diviſions, and theſe form mountains that may be ſeen at ſixty leagues diſtance. The ſoil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the moſt delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the ſea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad, and this, together with ſome of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made ſome ſtay at this iſland; and it was afterwards viſited again by captain Cook in the Endeavour, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Mr. now ſir Joſeph, Banks and Dr. Solander; and thoſe gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate ſurvey of the iſland. He again viſited it in 1773 and 1777.

* The Dolphin was ſent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the Britiſh government, in Auguſt 1766, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Theſe veſſels proceeded together, till they came within ſight of the South Sea, at the weſtern entrance of the ſtrait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767, captain Wallis diſcovered an iſland, about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitſun Iſland*, it being diſcovered on Whitſun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 26′ S. and its longitude, 137° 56′ W. The next day he diſcovered another iſland, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Iſland*. The inhabitants of this iſland, captain Wallis ſays, were of a middle ſtature, and dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung looſe over their ſhoulders. The men were well made, and the women handſome. Their clothing was a kind of coarſe cloth or matting, which was faſtened about their middle, and ſeemed capable of being brought up round their ſhoulders. This iſland is about ſix miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 18′ S. longitude 138° 4′ W. In the ſpace of a few days after, he alſo diſcovered ſeveral other ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Iſland*, *Glouceſter Iſland*, *Cumberland Iſland*, *Prince William Henry's Iſland*, and *Oſnaburgh Iſland*.

On the 19th of the ſame month he diſcovered the iſland of Otaheite; and after he had quitted that iſland, he diſcovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another iſland about ſix miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders' Iſland*; and on the 30th of the ſame month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Iſland*. After having diſcovered ſome other ſmall iſlands, one of which was named *Wallis's Iſland*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February 1768, and his ſhip anchored ſafely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having paſſed through the ſtrait of Magellan, and made ſome ſtay at the iſland of Maſafuero, diſcovered, on the 2d of July 1767, an iſland about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Iſland*. It lies in latitude 25° 2′ S. longitude 133° 21′ W. and about a thouſand leagues to the eaſtward of the continent of America. The 11th of the ſame month he diſcovered another ſmall iſland, to which he gave the name of the *Biſhop of Oſnaburgh's Iſland*. The next day, he diſcovered two other ſmall iſlands, which he called *the Duke of Glouceſter's Iſlands*. The following month he diſcovered a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Iſlands*, and alſo three others, which he named *Gower's Iſland*, *Simpſon's Iſland*, *Carteret's Iſland*. On the 24th of the ſame month, he diſcovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Iſland*, which lies in lat. 4° 50′ S. and the next day *Winchelſea's Iſland*, which is diſtant about ten leagues, in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards diſcovered ſeveral other iſlands, and then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March 1769.

Some

Some parts of the iſland of Otaheite are very populous: and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole iſland amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, ſtrong, well-limbed, and finely ſhaped; the women are of an inferior ſize, but handſome, and very amorous, and indeed generally ſomewhat licentious. Their clothing conſiſts of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greateſt part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houſes, thoſe which are of a middling ſize, are of an oblong ſquare, about 24 feet long, and eleven wide, with a ſhelving roof ſupported on three rows of poſts, parellel to each other, one row on each ſide, and one in the middle. The utmoſt height within it is about nine feet, and the eaves on each ſide reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the reſt is open, no part being incloſed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered ſome inches deep with ſoft hay, over which they lay mats; and upon theſe they ſit in the day, and ſleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and thoſe they uſe are made of ſtone, or ſome kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otahiete are remarkable for their cleanlineſs; for both men and women conſtantly waſh their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is ſoft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

There were no tame animals on the iſland but hogs, dogs, and poultry, and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pidgeons, ducks, a few other birds, rats, and a very few ſerpents. The ſea, however, ſupplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the moſt excellent fiſh, and by the kindneſs of the Engliſh and the Spaniards they have now bulls and cows, ſheep, goats, a horſe and mare, geeſe, ducks, peacocks, and turkeys, and alſo cats.

In other countries, the men cut their hair ſhort, and the women pride themſelves on its length; but here the women always cut it ſhort round their ears, and the men (except the fiſhers, who are almoſt continually in the water) ſuffer it to ſpread over their ſhoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the cuſtom of diſcolouring the ſkin, by pricking it with a ſmall inſtrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattowing. This is performed upon the youth of both ſexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on ſeveral parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different trees. The fineſt and whiteſt is made of the Chineſe paper mulberry tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another conſiderable manufacture is matting, ſome of which is finer, and in every reſpect better than any we have in Europe. The coarſer ſort ſerves them to ſleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewiſe very dexterous in making wicker-work: their baſkets are of a thouſand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one ſupreme Deity, but at the ſame time acknowledge a variety of ſubordinate Deities: they offer up their prayers without the uſe of idols, and believe the exiſtence of the ſoul in a ſeparate ſtate, where there are two ſituations, of different degrees of happineſs. Among theſe people a ſubordination is eſtabliſhed, which ſomewhat reſembles the early ſtate of the European nations, under the feudal ſyſtem. If a general attack happens to be made upon the iſland, every diſtrict is obliged to furniſh its proportion of ſoldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are ſlings, which they uſe with great dexterity, and clubs of about ſix or ſeven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are conſtructed for warlike operations. Otaheite is ſaid to be able to ſend out 1720 war canoes, and 68,000 fighting men.

Eimeo,

Eimeo, Mataia or Oſnaburgh Iſland, and Tethuroa are conſidered as iſlands dependent on Otaheite; the cuſtoms of the inhabitants of the two former nearly agreeing with the Otaheitans.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the ſeveral iſlands ſo called in honour of the Royal Society, which were diſdiſcovered by captain Cook *, in the year 1769, the principal are, HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the northweſt

* At the cloſe of the year 1767, it was reſolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to ſend perſons into ſome part of the South Sea, to obſerve a tranſit of the planet Venus over the ſun's diſk, which, according to aſtronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the iſlands called Marqueſas de Mendoza, or thoſe of Rotterdam, or Amſterdam, were the propereſt places then known for making ſuch obſervation. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, it was recommended to his majeſty, in a memorial from the Society, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleaſed to order ſuch an obſervation to be made; upon which his majeſty ſignified to the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty his pleaſure, that a ſhip ſhould be provided to carry ſuch obſervers as the Society ſhould think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark of three hundred and ſeventy tons was prepared for that purpoſe. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was ſoon after, by the Royal Society, appointed with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had been long aſſiſtant to Dr. Bradley, at the Royal Obſervatory at Greenwich, to obſerve the tranſit. But while this veſſel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for his aſtronomical obſervation, he by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May 1768, the day before he landed at Haſtings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the iſland of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter dated the beginning of June, in anſwer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their obſervers ſent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook ſet ſail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of Auguſt 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joſeph Banks, eſq. and Dr. Solander. They made no diſcovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon iſland, Two Groups, Bird iſland, and Chain iſland; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769. During their ſtay there, they had an opportunity of making very accurate enquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants: and on the 4th of June, the whole paſſage of the planet Venus over the ſun's diſk was obſerved by them with great advantage. The reſult of their obſervations may be found in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook diſcovered and viſited the Society Iſlands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the ſouth till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes; longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W.; and afterwards made an accurate ſurvey of the coaſt of New Zealand. In November, he diſcovered a chain of iſlands, which he called *Barrier Iſlands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea: and in September 1770, arrived at the iſland of Savu, from thence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips in order to make ſome farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accordingly the Reſolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpoſe; the firſt was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They ſailed from Plymouth Sound, on the 13th of July 1772, and on the 29th of the ſame month arrived at the iſland of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having ſought in vain for a ſouthern continent. In that month the Reſolution and the Adventure ſeparated, in conſequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's ſound, on the 18th of May following. In Auguſt, they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they diſcovered Hervey's iſland. On the 2d of October, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Iſlands; and about the cloſe of the month, the Reſolution and the Adventure were ſeparated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Reſolution, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern polar regions, but was ſtopped in his progreſs by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes ſouth; longitude 106 degrees 54 minutes weſt. He then proceeded to Eaſter Iſland, where he arrived in March 1774, as he did alſo in the ſame month at the Marqueſas Iſlands. He afterwards diſcovered four iſlands, which he named Palliſer's iſlands, and again ſteering for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made ſome ſtay, and alſo viſited the neighbouring iſles. In Auguſt, he came to the New Hebrides, ſome of which were firſt diſcovered by him. After leaving

weſt of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the ſame, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants ſeem to be larger made, and more ſtout, than thoſe of Otaheite. Mr. Banks meaſured one of the men, and found him to be ſix feet three inches and a half high; yet they are ſo indolent, that he could not perſuade one of them to go up the hills with him; for they ſaid, if they were to attempt it the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than thoſe of Otaheite, and both ſexes appear leſs timid and leſs curious; though in their dreſs, language, and almoſt every other circumſtance, they are the ſame. Their houſes are neat, and they have boat-houſes that are remarkably large. *Ulitea* is about ſeven or eight leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Huaheine, and is a much larger iſland, but appears neither ſo fertile nor ſo populous. The principal refreſhments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, and fowls; but the two laſt are rather ſcarce. *Otaha* is divided from Ulitea by a ſtrait, that, in the narroweſt part, is not above two miles broad. This iſland affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the ſame kind as that of the other iſlands. About four leagues to the north-weſt of Otaha lies *Bolabola*, which is ſurrounded by a reef of rocks, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compaſs. To theſe iſlands, and thoſe of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles weſtward of Bolabola, containing ſix in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Iſlands. *Tabooyamanoo*, or Saunders's Iſland, may be here mentioned alſo, being ſubject to Huaheine.

OHETEROA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. weſt from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither ſo populous nor fertile as ſome of

leaving theſe iſlands, he ſteered to the ſouthward a few days, and diſcovered New Caledonia. Having ſurveyed the ſouth-weſt coaſt of this iſland, captain Cook ſteered again for New Zealand, in order to refreſh his crew, and put his ſhip into a condition to encounter the dangers attending the navigation in the high ſouthern latitudes. Directing his courſe to the ſouth and eaſt, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees 6 minutes ſouth, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes weſt, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of diſcovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a reſolution to ſteer directly for the weſt entrance of the ſtraits of Magellan, with a view of coaſting and ſurveying the uttermoſt or ſouth-ſide of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in latitude from 53 to 55, and ſteering nearly eaſt, he arrived off the weſtern mouth of the ſtraits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in this new route. In January 1775, he diſcovered a large and dreary iſland, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards diſcovered various capes and elevated ſnow-clad coaſts, to the moſt ſouthern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Thule*, as being the neareſt land to that pole, which has yet been diſcovered. In February, he diſcovered *Sandwich Land*, and ſeveral iſlands covered with ſnow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England, in the Adventure, a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope, without making any remarkable diſcovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by ſome of the ſavages of New Zealand; ſo that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exiſt; and, indeed, in the courſe of theſe voyages of diſcovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the courſe of his voyage in the Reſolution, he had made the circuit of the ſouthern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traverſed it in ſuch a manner, as to leave not the leaſt room for believing the exiſtence of a ſouthern continent, unleſs it were near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deſerves alſo to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, that, with a company of an hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty-two degrees north, to ſeventy-one degrees ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by ſickneſs; and this appears in a conſiderable degree, to have ariſen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preſerving the health of his men.

the

the other iſlands in theſe ſeas. The inhabitants are luſty, and well made, but are rather browner than thoſe of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa-wood, which is very hard, and ſome of them are near twenty feet long.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were ſo named by captain Cook in the year 1773, on account of the friendſhip which appeared to ſubſiſt among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to ſtrangers. Abel Janſen Taſman, an eminent Dutch navigator, firſt touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal iſlands. Captain Cook laborioufly explored the whole cluſter, which he found to conſiſt of more than ſixty. The three iſlands which Taſman ſaw, he named New Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The firſt is the largeſt, and extends about 21 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 13 from north to ſouth. Theſe iſlands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great induſtry. The iſland of Amſterdam is interſected by ſtraight and pleaſant roads, with fruit-trees on each ſide, which provide ſhade from the ſcorching heat of the ſun.

The chief iſlands are Annamooka, Tangataboo (the reſidence of the ſovereign and the chiefs), Lefooga, and Eooa. Lefooga is about ſeven miles long and in ſome places not above two or three broad. It is in many reſpects ſuperior to Annamooka.

The plantations are both more numerous and more extenſive; and incloſed by fences which, running parallel to each other, form fine ſpacious public roads, which would appear beautiful in countries where rural conveniences have been carried to the greateſt perfection. They are, in general, highly cultivated, and well ſtocked with the ſeveral roots and fruits which theſe iſlands produce, and captain Cook endeavoured to add to their number by planting Indian corn, and the ſeeds of melons, pumpkins, and the like.

Eooa, when viewed from the ſhip at anchor, formed one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in nature; and very different from the others of the Friendly Iſles; which being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here, the land riſing gently to a conſiderable height, preſents us with an extenſive proſpect, with groves of trees interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in beautiful diſorder; the reſt is covered with graſs, except near the ſhores, where it is entirely covered with fruit and foreſt trees; amongſt which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the iſland as poſſible, captain Cook and ſome of his officers walked up to the higheſt point of the iſland. From this place they had a view of almoſt the whole, which conſiſted of beautiful meadows of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was ſurveying this delightful proſpect," ſays captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myſelf with the pleaſing idea that ſome future navigator may, from the ſame ſtation, behold theſe meadows ſtocked with cattle, brought to theſe iſlands by the ſhips of England; and that the completion of this ſingle benevolent purpoſe, independent of all other conſiderations, would ſufficiently mark to poſterity, that our voyages had not been uſeleſs to the general intereſts of humanity. The next morning," ſays our benevolent commander, "I planted a pine-apple, and ſowed the ſeeds of melons, and other vegetables, in Taoofa's plantation. I had indeed ſome encouragement to flatter myſelf that my endeavours of this kind alſo would not be fruitleſs; as I had this day a diſh of turnips ſerved up at my dinner, which was the produce of ſeeds I left here in my former voyage."

We are informed that the bulk of the people of theſe iſlands are ſatisfied with one wife; but the chiefs have commonly ſeveral women, though it appeared as if one only was looked on as miſtreſs of the family. Though female chaſtity was frail enough in ſome, it is highly probable that conjugal fidelity is ſeldom violated: as it does not appear that more than one inſtance of it was known to our voyagers; and in that the man's life, who was the cauſe of it, paid the forfeit of his crime. Nor were thoſe of the better ſort, who were unmarried, more liberal of their favours; thoſe who were, being obviouſly proſtitutes by profeſſion. When they are afflicted with any diſorder which they deem dangerous, they cut off a joint of one of their little fingers; fondly believing that the Deity will accept of that as a ſort of ſacrifice, efficacious enough to procure the recovery of their health. It was ſuppoſed from ſome circumſtances, that though they believe in a future ſtate, they have no notion of future rewards or puniſhments for the things done here. They believe in a Supreme Being; but they believe alſo in a number of inferior ones; for every iſland has its peculiar god, as every Europern nation has its peculiar ſaint. Captain Cook thinks he can pronounce that they do not worſhip any thing which is the work of their own hands, or any viſible part of the creation. They make no offering of hogs, dogs, or fruit, to the *Otooa*, as at Otaheite; but is abſolutely certain that even this mild, humane, and beneficent people uſe *human ſacrifices*. The government, as far as our people could learn, appears to approach nearly to the feudal ſyſtem, formerly eſtabliſhed all over Europe. When any perſon of conſequence dies, his body is waſhed and decorated by ſome woman, or women, who are appointed on the occaſion; and theſe women are not, according to their cuſtoms, to touch any food with their hands for many months afterwards; and it is remarkable, that the length of the time they are thus proſcribed, is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief whom they had waſhed. Their great men are fond of a ſingular piece of luxury; which is to have women ſit beſide them all night, and beat on different parts of their body untill they go to ſleep; after which they relax a little of their labour, unleſs they appear likely to awake; in which caſe they redouble their drumming until they are again faſt aſleep.

NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it had been generally diſtinguiſhed, in our maps and charts, by the name of New Zealand, and was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent: but it is now known, from the late diſcoveries of captain Cook, who ſailed round it, to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided from each other by a ſtrait four or five leagues broad. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees ſouth, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees eaſt from Greenwich. One of theſe iſlands is for the moſt part mountanious, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of ſir Joſeph Banks, and of Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants would flouriſh here in the utmoſt luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is ſuppoſed that the winters are milder than thoſe of England, and the ſummers not hotter, though more equably warm; ſo that it is imagined, that if this country was ſettled by people from Europe, they would with moderate induſtry, be ſoon ſupplied, not only with neceſſaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are foreſts of vaſt extent, filled with

very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been deſcribed by the naturaliſts. The inhabitants of New Zealand are ſtout and robuſt, and equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the ſun, and in many not ſo deep; and both ſexes have good features. Their dreſs is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner ſimilar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattowing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally ſhewn themſelves very hoſtile to the Europeans who have viſited them. As to their religious principles, they believe that the ſouls of ſuch as are killed in battle, and their fleſh afterwards eaten by the enemy, are doomed to perpetual fire; while the ſouls of thoſe who die a natural death, or whoſe bodies are preſerved from ſuch ignominious treatment, aſcend to the habitations of the gods. The common method of diſpoſing of their dead is by interment in the earth; but if they have more of their ſlaughtered enemies than they can eat, they throw them into the ſea. They have no ſuch things as *morais*, or other places of public worſhip; nor do they ever aſſemble together with this view: but they have prieſts who alone addreſs the Deity in prayer for the proſperity of their temporal affairs, ſuch as an enterpriſe againſt a hoſtile tribe, a fiſhing party, or the like. Polygamy is allowed; and it is not uncommon for a man to have two or three wives.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by capt. Cook to a cluſter of iſlands, the moſt northerly of which was ſeen by Quiros, the Spaniſh navigator, in 1606, and by him named Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo. From that time, till Bougainville's voyage in 1768, and capt. Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was ſuppoſed to be part of a great ſouthern continent, called *Terra Auſtralis Incognita*. But when capt. Cook had ſailed round New Zeland, and along the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Reſolution, he reſolved to explore thoſe parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, beſides aſcertaining the extent and ſituation of theſe iſlands, he diſcovered ſeveral in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides, are ſituated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. ſouth; and between 165 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. eaſt longitude. They conſiſt of the following iſlands, ſome of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irronan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far diſtant from the New Hebrides, and ſouth-weſtward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large iſland, firſt diſcovered by capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-ſeven leagues long, but its breadth is not conſiderable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of ſtout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a ſwarthy or dark cheſnut brown. A few leagues diſtant are two ſmall iſlands called the Iſlands of Pines, and Botany Iſland.

NEW HOLLAND,

THE largeſt iſland in the world, and formerly ſuppoſed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Auſtralis Incognita, lies between 10° 30′ and 43° ſouth latitude, and between 110° and 153° 30′ eaſt longitude; extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe, the eaſtern coaſt running no leſs than 2000 miles in length from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt. Its dimenſions from eaſt to weſt have not been ſo exactly aſcertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who viſited this part of the world at a time when the method of making obſervations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was leſs accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of theſe diſcoverers, as Van Diemen's Land, Carpentaria, &c.; and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and weſt parts of the country. The eaſtern part, called New South Wales, was taken poſſeſſion of in his majeſty's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the Britiſh dominions, a colony being very lately formed there chiefly of the convicts ſentenced to tranſportation.

The accounts of the climate and ſoil of this extenſive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various, and indeed it cannot be expected otherwiſe, as different parts have been explored at different times, and at different ſeaſons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the ſea-coaſt, the only place on which any inhabitants have been diſcovered, appearing ſandy and barren, and as for the inland parts, which might reaſonably be ſuppoſed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural ſterility of the ſoil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet diſcovered.

One thing we are aſſured of by all who have ever viſited this country, that its coaſt is ſurrounded by very dangerous ſhoals and rocks, ſo that it is by no means eaſy to effect a landing upon it. A ſhoal called Houtman's Abrolhos, or ſhoal, from Frederic Houtman, commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen in 1618, lies on the weſtern coaſt, on which commodore Pelſart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ſhip, the Batavia, having on board 330 men, ſtruck on this ſhoal, there was no land in ſight, excepting ſome ſmall rocky iſlands, and one conſiderably bigger, about three leagues diſtant. All theſe were explored in ſearch of freſh water, but none being found, they were obliged to ſail in their ſkiff to the continent, which they ſoon after diſcovered. But on their approach, they found the coaſt ſo exceſſively rocky, that it was impoſſible to land. Continuing their courſe northward for two days, they found themſelves in 27 degrees of ſouth latitude; but ſtill the ſhore was ſo extremely ſteep, that there was no poſſibility of approaching it. It preſented the ſame appearance as far north as 24 degrees; but the men being now reſolved to get on ſhore at any rate, ſix of them who were expert ſwimmers, threw themſelves into the ſea, and with much ado got to land. Here they employed themſelves in ſearching for freſh water, but finding none, they were obliged to ſwim back again to their ſkiff. Next day they diſcovered a cape, from the extreme points of which ran a ridge of rocks for about a mile into the ſea, with another behind it; but ſtill no paſſage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the ſame day, into which they ventured, though the paſſage was extremely dangerous, even for a ſkiff, having only two feet water, with a rugged ſtony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing, but though they made the moſt diligent ſearch for

freſh water, they could find neither rivulets, ſprings, nor even water that could be drank by digging of wells. The ſhoal on which commodore Pelſart was wrecked, is placed by Dampier in 27 degrees ſouth latitude.

This navigator explored the coaſt of New Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the laſt of theſe voyages he fell in with the land in 26° ſouth latitude; but could not land on account of the ſteepneſs of the ſhore. In 22° 22′, he found another ſhoal, which was the firſt he had met with ſince leaving the Abrolhos in 27°. In 20° 21′, he fell in with ſome rocky iſlands, which, from the nature of the tides, he ſuppoſed to extend in a range as far ſouth as Shark's bay, in 25° and nine or ten leagues in breadth from eaſt to weſt. In 18° 21′ he effected a landing, but the ſhore here, as in all other places viſited by this navigator, was exceſſively rocky at low water, ſo that it is then impoſſible to land. At high water, however, the tides riſe ſo high, that boats may get over the rocks to a ſandy beach which runs all along the coaſt.

The ſouthern part of this iſland, viſited by captain Taſman in 1642, was found leſs difficult of acceſs. He purſued the coaſt as far ſouth as 44 degrees, where it begins to run to the eaſtward; and from his time the country appears not to have been viſited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux of the Adventure, reached the point we ſpeak of, lying in 43° 17′ ſouth, 145° 36′, and by account 143° 10′ eaſt from Greenwich. Several iſlands appeared to the north-weſt, one of which was named by captain Cook, Eddyſtone, from its reſemblance to the light-houſe of that name; and he obſerves that Nature ſeems to have left theſe two rocks for the ſame purpoſe that the Eddyſtone lighthouſe was built by man, viz. to give navigators warning of their danger; for they are the conſpicuous ſummits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the ſea in many places breaks very high. Their ſurface is white with the dung of ſea-fowls, which makes them conſpicuous at a conſiderable diſtance.

This celebrated navigator, capt. Cook, ſpent upwards of four months in ſurveying the eaſtern coaſt, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of herbs found on ſhore, was called *Botany Bay*, and is the place for which the convicts were originally deſtined; though now they are ſettled in another part of the iſland about 15 miles to the northward, named, by capt. Cook, *Port Jackſon*, the principal ſettlement being called *Sydney Cove*.

This was not viſited or explored by captain Cook; it was ſeen at the diſtance of between two and three miles from the coaſt, but had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention as a ſeaman than Botany Bay, where he paſſed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackſon gradually extends into a noble and capacious baſon, having ſoundings ſufficient for the largeſt veſſels, and ſpace to accommodate in perfect ſecurity, any number that could be aſſembled. It runs chiefly in a weſtern direction about 13 miles into the country, and contains no leſs than 100 ſmall coves formed by narrow necks of land, whoſe projections afford ſhelter from the winds.

Sydney Cove lies on the ſouth ſide of the harbour, between five and ſix miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is moſtly covered with wood, yet ſo rocky, that it is not eaſy to comprehend how the trees could have found ſufficient nouriſhment, to bring them to ſo conſiderable a magnitude. The ſoil in other parts of the coaſt, immediately about Port Jackſon, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the ſouth end of the harbour from the ſea, is chiefly ſand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay the firſt ſpace is occupied by a wood, in ſome parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that is a kind

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of heath, poor, ſandy, and full of ſwamps; but, as far as the eye can reach to the weſtward, the country is one continued wood.

There are ſeveral parts of the harbour in which the trees ſtand at a greater diſtance from each other than in Sydney Cove; ſome of theſe, which have ſmall runs of water, and a promiſing ſoil, the governor propoſed to cultivate, as ſoon as hands could be ſpared; but the advantage of being able to land the ſtores and proviſions, with ſo much eaſe, immediately determined the choice of a place for the principal ſettlement; for, if they had but one mile to remove the ſtores from the ſpot where they were landed, the undertaking would probably have been fruitleſs; ſo many were the obſtacles to land-carriage at the head of Sydney Cove, where governor Philip fixed the ſeat of his government. The 7th of February, 1788, was the memorable day on which a regular form of government was eſtabliſhed on the coaſt of New South Wales. For obvious reaſons, all poſſible ſolemnity was given to the proceedings neceſſary on this occaſion.

On a ſpace previouſly cleared, the whole colony was aſſembled; the military drawn up under arms; the convicts ſtationed apart; and near the perſon of the governor thoſe who were to hold the principal offices under him. The royal commiſſion was then read by Mr. David Collins the judge-advocate. By this inſtrument, Arthur Philip was conſtituted and appointed captain-general and governor in chief, in and over the territory called New South Wales, extending from the extremity of the north coaſt, called Cape York, ſouth latitude 10° 30′, to the ſouthern extremity of the South Cape, ſouth latitude 43° 30′, and all the inland country to the weſtward, as far as eaſt longitude 135°, including all the iſlands adjacent in the Pacific Ocean within the latitudes aforeſaid; and of all the towns, garriſons, caſtles, forts, and fortifications, which may be hereafter erected in the ſaid territory. The act of parliament, eſtabliſhing the courts of judicature, was next read; and laſtly, the patents under the great ſeal, empowering the proper perſons to convene and hold their courts, whenever the exigency ſhould require. A triple diſcharge of muſquetry concluded this part of the ceremony.

The 4th of June was not ſuffered to paſs without due celebration. It was a day of remiſſion from labour, and a general feſtivity took place through the whole ſettlement. At ſun-riſe, the Sirius and Supply tranſports, fired each a ſalute of 21 guns; and again, at one o'clock, the marines on ſhore ſaluted with three vollies; at ſun-ſet, the ſame honours were a third time repeated from the ſhips; large bonfires were lighted, and the whole camp afforded a ſcene of joy. That there might not be any exception to the happineſs of this day, four convicts, who had been reprieved from death, and baniſhed to an iſland in the middle of the harbour, received a full pardon, and were ſent to bear their part in the general exultation. The governor ſaid, he hoped there was not a ſingle heavy heart in this part of his majeſty's dominions. His houſe was the centre of conviviality to all who could be admitted to that ſociety; it was at this time that the name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is above 50 miles in length, and 30 broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were, on the weſt, Carmarthen and Landſdown hills; on the north, the northern part of Broken-Bay; and to the ſouthward, the ſouthern parts of Botany-Bay. Thus including completely theſe three principal bays, and leaving the chief place of ſettlement at Sydney-Cove, nearly in the centre.

At the very firſt landing of governor Philip on the ſhore of Botany-Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed, but on ſeeing the governor approach with ſigns of friendſhip, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

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They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet ſeemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleaſed to wear them.

There was no kind of diſagreement between the natives and the Britiſh while the ſhips remained at Botany-Bay. The governor, immediately after landing, examined the bay itſelf; when it appeared, that, though extenſive, it afforded no ſhelter from the eaſterly winds; and that, in conſequence of its ſhallowneſs, ſhips of a moderate draught would always be obliged to anchor at the entrance of the bay, where they muſt be expoſed to a heavy ſea that rolls in whenever it flows from the eaſtward. Several runs of freſh water were found in different parts of the bay; but there did not appear to be any ſituation to which there was not ſome very ſtrong objections. In the northern part of it is a ſmall creek, which runs a conſiderable way into the country, but it has water only for a boat; the ſides of it are frequently overflown, and the low lands near it are a perfect ſwamp.

The weſtern branch of the bay is continued to a great extent, but the officers ſent to examine it could not find any ſupply of freſh water, except in ſmall quantities. Point Sutherland afforded the moſt eligible ſituation, having a run of good water, though not in very great abundance. But to this part of the harbour the ſhips could not approach; and the ground near it, even in the higheſt parts, was in general damp and ſpungy. Smaller numbers might, indeed, in ſeveral ſpots have found a comfortable reſidence; but no place was found in the whole of Botany-Bay which ſeemed at all calculated for the reception of ſo large a ſettlement. Theſe circumſtances, viz. the ſhallowneſs of the harbour, the ſcarcity of freſh water, the openneſs of the bay, and the dampneſs of the ſoil, by which the people would probably, be rendered unhealthy, made the governor determine to ſeek another ſituation.

That Botany-Bay ſhould have appeared to captain Cook in a more advantageous light than to governor Philip, is not by any means extraordinary. The objects were very different; the one requited only ſhelter and refreſhment for a ſmall veſſel, and for a ſhort time; but the other had great numbers to provide for, and was neceſſitated to find a place to which ſhips of conſiderable burthen might approach.

The different coves of Port Jackſon were examined with all expedition, and the preference was given to one which had the fineſt ſpring of water; and in which ſhips can anchor ſo cloſe to the ſhore, that at a very ſmall expence quays may be conſtructed at which the largeſt veſſels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal ſtreets, the governor's houſe, main-guard, hoſpital, church, ſtore-houſes, and barracks. In ſome parts of this ſpace temporary barracks are erected, but no permanent building will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended in future, the form of other ſtreets are alſo marked out, in ſuch a manner as to enſure a free circulation of air. The principal ſtreets, according to this deſign, will be 200 feet wide; the ground to the ſouthward propoſed for them is nearly level, and is an excellent ſituation for buildings. It is propoſed by the governor that no more than one houſe is to be built on one allotment, which is to conſiſt of 60 feet in front, and 150 in depth. Theſe regulations will preſerve a kind of uniformity in the buildings, prevent narrow ſtreets, and exclude many inconveniencies, which a rapid increaſe of inhabitants might otherwiſe occaſion. It has been alſo an object of the governor's attention to place the public buildings in ſituations that will be eligible at all times, and particularly to give the ſtorehouſes and hoſpital ſufficient ſpace for future enlargement, ſhould it be found neceſſary.

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The firſt huts that were erected here were compoſed of very periſhable materials, the ſoft wood of the cabbage palm; being only deſigned for immediate ſhelter. The neceſſity of uſing the wood quite green made it alſo the leſs likely to prove durable. The huts of the convicts were ſtill more ſlight, being compoſed only of upright poſts, wattled with ſlight twigs, and plaiſtered up with clay. Barracks and huts were afterwards formed of materials rather more laſting. Buildings of ſtone might eaſily have been raiſed, had there been any means of procuring lime for mortar. The ſtone which has been found is of three ſorts: a fine free-ſtone, reckoned equal in goodneſs to that of Portland; an indifferent kind of ſand ſtone, or fire-ſtone; and a ſort which appears to contain a mixture of iron. But neither chalk, nor any ſpecies of lime-ſtone have yet been diſcovered. In building a ſmall houſe for the governor on the eaſtern ſide of the Cove, lime was made of oyſter-ſhells, collected in the neighbouring Coves; but until the diſcovery of chalk or lime-ſtone, the public buildings muſt go on very ſlowly, unleſs care be taken to ſend out thoſe articles as ballaſt in all the ſhips deſtined for Port Jackſon. The clay is very good, and ſome bricks have been made of it, but in uſing it for building, the walls muſt be made very thick.

In a country expoſed to frequent ſtorms of thunder and lightning, it was rather an uneaſy ſituation to have all the proviſions and other neceſſaries lodged in wooden buildings, covered with thatch of the moſt combuſtible kind. Inſtead of thatch, however, they now uſe ſhingles, made from a tree in appearance like fir, but producing a wood not unlike the Engliſh oak; but this, though more ſecure than thatching, is not enough for ſtore-houſes. For theſe, if ſlate-ſtone ſhould not be found, tiles muſt be made of the clay which has been uſed for bricks.

The principal farm is ſituated in the next Cove to the eaſt of the town, and leſs than half a mile from it. When the plan was drawn, it contained about nine acres laid down in corn of different kinds. Later accounts ſpeak of ſix acres of wheat, eight of barley, and ſix of other grain, as raiſed on the public account, and in a very promiſing way.

It is ſuppoſed that metals of various kinds abound in the ſoil on which the town is placed. A convict, who had formerly been uſed to work in the Staffordſhire lead-mines, declared very poſitively, that the ground which they were now clearing, contains a large quantity of that ore: and copper is ſuppoſed to lie under ſome rocks which were blown up, in ſinking a cellar, for the public ſtock of ſpirituous liquors. It is the opinion of the governor himſelf, that there are ſeveral metals in the earth thereabout, and that mines may hereafter be worked to great advantage; but at preſent he ſtrongly diſcourages any ſearch of this kind, very judiciouſly diſcerning, that in the preſent ſituation of his people, which requires ſo many exertions of a very different nature, the diſcovery of a mine would be the greateſt evil that could befal the ſettlement. In ſome places where they dug in making wells, they found a ſubſtance which they concluded to be black lead. The kind of pigment, called by the painters Spaniſh brown, is found in great abundance; and the white clay, with which the natives paint themſelves, is ſtill in greater plenty. The Abbe le Receveur was of opinion, that this clay, if cleaned from the ſand, which might eaſily be done, would make excellent porcelain.

The climate at Sydney-Cove is conſidered, on the whole, as equal to the fineſt in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are ſeldom any fogs. The ſoil, though in general light, and rather ſandy in this part, is full as good as uſually is found ſo near the ſea-ſide. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Braſil and the Cape, which were not damaged in their paſſage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful; both the European ſorts, and ſuch as

are

are peculiar to New South Wales. In the governor's garden are excellent cauliflowers and melons, very fine of their kinds. The orange-trees flouriſh, and the fig-trees and vines are improving ſtill more rapidly. In a climate ſo favourable, the cultivation of the vine may, doubtleſs be carried to any degree of perfection; and ſhould not other articles of commerce divert the attention of the ſettlers from this point, the wines of New South Wales may, perhaps, hereafter be ſought with avidity, and become an indiſpenſable part of the luxury of European tables.

The rank graſs under the trees unfortunately proved fatal to all the ſheep purchaſed by governor Philip, on his own and on the public account. Thoſe which private individuals kept cloſe to their own tents were preſerved. Hogs and poultry increaſed very faſt; and black cattle will, doubtleſs, ſucceed as well. It was very unfortunate, that two bulls and four cows, belonging to government and the governor, having been left for a time by the man who was appointed to attend them, ſtrayed into the woods, and though they were traced to ſome diſtance, never could be recovered. This was a loſs which muſt be for ſome time irreparable.

The natives of New Holland, in general, ſeem to have no great averſion to the new ſettlers: the only acts of hoſtility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fiſhing-grounds, which the New Hollanders juſtly ſuppoſed to belong to themſelves. They appear, however, to be in too ſavage a ſtate to be capable as yet of deriving any inſtruction from their new neighbours. They are ſo ignorant of agriculture, that it ſeems moſt probable, they do not even know the uſe of corn, and, therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, ſet fire to that which the coloniſts had raiſed for their own uſe. To avoid ſuch diſagreeable incidents, a new ſettlement was begun on a ſmall uninhabited iſland, named *Norfolk Iſland*, lying in ſouth latitude 29°, and eaſt longitude 168° 10′, at the diſtance of 1200 miles from New Holland. The party ſent out to form this ſettlement conſiſted only of 26 perſons, who took poſſeſſion on the 14th of February 788. This ſettlement was found ſo eligible, that, in October 1788, another party was ſent thither, ſo that the new colony at the time the laſt advices were received, conſiſted of 44 men and 16 women; who being ſupplied with 18 months proviſions, will, probably, be able to cultivate the ſoil in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to form a granary, which will put thoſe who ſettled on New Holland entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

For a more particular account of this new ſettlement, we refer our readers to the Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany-Bay, publiſhed by Stockdale.

NEW GUINEA,

UNTIL the late diſcoveries, was thought to be the north-coaſt of an extenſive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook diſcovered a ſtrait between them, which runs north-eaſt, through which he ſailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow iſland, extending north-eaſt, from the ſecond degree of ſouth latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees eaſt longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country conſiſts of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interſperſed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and moſt of the trees, ſhrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South-ſea iſlands. It affords from the ſea a variety of delightful proſpects. The inhabitants make nearly the ſame appearance as the New Hollanders on the other ſide the ſtraits.

To

To the north of New Guinea is NEW BRITAIN, which is ſituated in the 4th degree of ſouth latitude, and 152 deg. 19 min. eaſt longitude from Greenwich. It was ſuppoſed to be part of an imaginary continent till captain Dampier found it to be an iſland, and ſailed through a ſtrait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found that it was of much leſs extent than it was till then imagined to be, by ſailing through another ſtrait to the north, which ſeparates it from a long iſland, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and ſtately trees. To the eaſtward of New Britain, and in both the above ſtraits, are many iſlands, moſt of which are ſaid to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth-eaſt, about two hundred and ſeventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black, and wooly-headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noſes and thick lips. North-weſtward of New Ireland a cluſter of iſlands was ſeen by captain Carteret, lying very near each other, and ſuppoſed to conſiſt of twenty or thirty in number. One of theſe, which is of very conſiderable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; and the reſt of the cluſter received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of diſcovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by capt. Cook and capt. Clerke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland: in this courſe they diſcovered two iſlands, which capt. Cook called Prince Edward's Iſles. The largeſt about 15 leagues in circuit is in lat. 46-53 ſouth, lon. 37-46: the other about 9 leagues in circuit, lat. 46-40 and long. 38-8, E. both barren and almoſt covered with ſnow. From New Holland they ſailed to New Zealand, and afterwards viſited the Friendly and Society Iſles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich iſles, which are twelve in number, and are ſituated between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. N. latitude. The air of theſe iſlands is in general ſalubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the ſame with thoſe of the Society and Friendly Iſles. The inhabitants are of a middle ſize, ſtout and well-made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. O'why'hee is in circumference about 300 Engliſh miles, and the number of inhabitants is computed at 150,000. The others are large and well peopled; for their names we refer to our map. The natives are deſcribed as of a mild and friendly temper and carriage, and in hoſpitality to ſtrangers not exceeded by the inhabitants of the Friendly Iſles. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44. deg. 33 min. north, and lon. 235 deg. 36 min. eaſt, they ſaw part of the American continent, bearing north-eaſt.

Capt. Cook afterwards diſcovered King George's Sound, which is ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of America, and is extenſive: that part of it where the ſhips under his command anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and lon. 233 deg. 28 min. eaſt. The whole ſound is ſurrounded by high land, which in ſome places appears

very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle ſize, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they diſcovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land, which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the iſland of Unalaſchka, and after their departure from thence ſtill continued to trace the coaſt. They arrived on the 20th of Auguſt 1778 in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. lon. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eaſtward, the cloſer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th; when a ſtorm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a conſultation was therefore held on board the Reſolution, as ſoon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was reſolved, that as this paſſage was impractible for any uſeful purpoſe of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it ſhould be proſecuted no farther; and eſpecially on account of the condition the ſhips were in, the approach of winter, and their great diſtance from any known place of refreſhment. The voyage, indeed, afforded ſufficient evidence, that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans towards the North; and this voyage alſo aſcertained the weſtern boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, capt. Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, by an act of ſudden reſentmeut and fear, rather than from a bad diſpoſition, on the iſland of O'why'hee, the largeſt of the Sandwich iſles, on the 14th of February 1779: and his death was univerſally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but alſo in other parts of Europe, by thoſe to whom his merits and public ſervices were known. In his laſt voyage he had explored the coaſt of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 ſec. north. After the death of capt. Cook, the command devolved on capt. Clerke, who died at ſea on his return to the ſouthward on the 22d day of Auguſt 1779. The two ſhips returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article, without inſerting the following character of capt. Cook, to perpetuate the memory and ſervices of ſo excellent a navigator and commander.

Perhaps no ſcience ever received greater additions from the labours of a ſingle man, than geography has done from thoſe of capt. Cook. In his firſt voyage to the South Seas, he diſcovered the Society Iſlands; determined the inſularity of New Zealand; diſcovered the ſtraits which ſeparate the two iſlands, and are called after his name; and made a complete ſurvey of both. He afterwards explored the Eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-ſeven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thouſand miles.

In his ſecond expedition, he reſolved the great problem of a ſouthern continent, having traverſed that hemiſphere between the latitude of 40 and 70°, in ſuch a manner as not to leave a poſſibility of its exiſtence, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he diſcovered New Caledonia, the largeſt iſland in the Southern Pacific, except New Zealand; the iſland of Georgia; and an unknown coaſt, which he named Sandwich Land, the *Thule* of the Southern hemiſphere; and having twice viſited the tropical ſeas, he ſettled the ſituations of the old, and made ſeveral new diſcoveries.

But the laſt voyage is diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt by the extent and importance of its diſcoveries. Beſides ſeveral ſmaller iſlands in the Southern Pacific, he diſco-

diſcovered, to the North of the Equinoctial Line, the group called the Sandwich Iſlands, which, from their ſituation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of conſequence in the ſyſtem of European navigation, than any other diſcovery in the South-Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the Weſtern coaſt of America, from the latitude of 43° to 70° North, containing an extent of 3,500 miles, aſcertained the proximity of the two great continents of Aſia and America; paſſed the ſtraits between them, and ſurveyed the coaſt on each ſide, to ſuch a height of northern latitude, as to demonſtrate the impracticability of a paſſage, in that hemiſphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific ocean, either by an Eaſtern or a Weſtern courſe. In ſhort, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japaneſe Archipelago, which ſtill remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has compleated the hydrography of the habitable globe.

As a navigator his ſervices were perhaps not leſs ſplendid, certainly not leſs important and meritorious. The method which he diſcovered, and ſo ſucceſsfully purſued, of preſerving the health of ſeamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will tranſmit his name to future ages, among the friends and benefactors of mankind.

Thoſe who are converſant with naval hiſtory need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which are ſought, through the medium of long voyages at ſea, had hitherto been purchaſed. That dreadful diſorder which is peculiar to their ſervice, and whoſe ravages have marked the tracks of diſcoverers with circumſtances almoſt too ſhocking to relate, muſt, without exerciſing an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our ſeamen, have proved an inſuperable obſtacle to the proſecution of ſuch enterprizes. It was reſerved for capt. Cook to ſhew the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unuſual length of three or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminiſhing the probability of life, in the ſmalleſt degree.

Having pointed out the numerous and important advantages which have ariſen, and may ariſe from theſe voyages, both to the diſcoverers and diſcovered; the learned editor of the laſt voyage, enquires into the origin of the inhabitants who people this myriad of iſlands that are ſcattered over the great Pacific Ocean, and proves, by incontrovertible arguments, founded on the affinity of their language, manners, and cuſtoms, that they have all originally ſprung from one common ſtock, and that ſtock is the Aſiatic nation called *Malayans*. He alſo traces another of the large families of the earth, but whoſe lot has fallen in far leſs hoſpitable climes: we mean the Eſquimaux; known hitherto only on the coaſts of Greenland, Labrador, and Hudſon's Bay; and who differ in ſeveral characteriſtic marks from the inland inhabitants of North America. Mr. Hearne, as our readers have already ſeen, traced this unhappy tribe farther back toward that part of the globe from which, no doubt, they had originally migrated; but it was reſerved for capt. Cook to ſhew that it is the ſame race which peoples the bays and iſlands on the Weſt coaſt of North America, and that they are extended over a ſpace of at leaſt 1500 leagues from eaſt to weſt, and from the latitude of 60°, to the latitude of 72° north.

TERRA-INCOGNITA, or unknown Countries.

NOTWIHTSTANDING the amazing diſcoveries of navigators, and the progreſs made in geography, ſince the firſt voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there ſtill remain ſome countries, either abſolutely unknown, or very ſuperficially ſurveyed.

IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe the moderns are acquanted with little more than the ſea-coaſts, and theſe very imperfectly; the internal parts being unexplored, nor have we any ſatisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country bleſſed with a variety of climates, ſome of them the fineſt in the world.

IN AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the pole, are Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like thoſe of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and theſe ſavage; low in ſtature, and of an ugly appearance. They live upon the raw fleſh of whales, bears, foxes, &c. and go muffled up in ſkins, the hairy ſides next their bodies. In theſe inhoſpitable regions, their nights (as may be ſeen in the table of climates in the Introduction), are from one to ſix months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable ſnow; ſo that the miſerable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the ſun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is altogether unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazons on the ſouth, is unknown, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements; which, from the unhealthfulneſs of the climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back.

The country of Amazonia is ſo called from the great river of that name, which riſes in Quito, in 76 degrees W. lon. and diſcharges itſelf into the Atlantic Ocean: it is computed, that with all its turnings and windings it runs near 5000 miles, and is generally two or three leagues broad: 500 leagues from the mouth it is 30 fathoms deep,

deep, and near 100 rivers fall into it on the North and the South. The country has never been throughly explored, though it is ſituated between the European colonies of Peru and Braſil, and every where acceſſible by the means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe; but always attended with vaſt difficulties, ſo that few of the adventurers ever returned back; and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any ſettlement there.

Patagonia, at the ſouthern extremity of America, is ſometimes deſcribed as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies there, it is almoſt unknown, and is generally repreſented as a barren, inhoſpitable country. Some of the inhabitants are certainly very tall, to 6¼ and 7 feet high, but others, and the greater part, are of a moderate and common ſtature. Here, in 52½ degrees ſouth lat. we fall in with the ſtraits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the iſlands of Terra del Fuego on the ſouth. Theſe Straits extend from eaſt to weſt 110 leagues, but the breadth in ſome places falls ſhort of one. They were firſt diſcovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portugueſe, in the ſervice of Spain, who ſailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby diſcovered a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been ſince conſidered as the firſt navigator that ſailed round the world, but having loſt his life in a ſkirmiſh with ſome Indians before the ſhips returned to Europe, the honour of being the firſt circumnavigator has been diſputed in favour of the brave ſir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, paſſed the ſame Strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe Straits, diſcovered in lat. 54½ another paſſage, ſince known by the name of the Straits La Maire, and this paſſage, which has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anſon's voyage, however, from fatal experience, adviſes mariners to keep clear of theſe ſtraits and iſlands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. ſouth lat. before they attempt to ſet their face weſtward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intenſe cold in thoſe latitudes, render that paſſage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of ſummer.

A NEW

GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places, in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps, and Obſervations.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Abbeville,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	50 7 N.	1-54 E.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	57-22 N.	1-40 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe,	60-27 N.	22-18 E.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North	America,	17-10 N.	101-20 W.
Achem,	Sumatra,	Eaſt Indies,	Aſia,	5-22 N.	95-29 E.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe,	42-00 N.	26-30 E.
Adriatic ſea, or Gulf of Ven.	Between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe,	Mediterranean Sea.	
Adventure (Iſle)	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia,	17-05 S.	144-12 W.
Agde,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-18 N.	3-33 E.
Agen,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-12 N.	0-40 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies,	Atlantic ocean,	Europe,	49-56 N.	6-41 W.
Agra,	Agra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	26-43 N.	76-49 E.
Air,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-30 N.	4-35 W.
Aix,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-31 N.	5-31 E.
Albany,	New York,	North	America,	42-48 N.	73-30 W.
Alby,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-55 N.	2-13 E.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia,	35-45 N.	37-25 E.
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia,	36-35 N.	36-25 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa,	31-11 N.	30-21 E.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa,	36-49 N.	2-17 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Ambrym Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-09 S.	168-17 E.
Amiens,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe,	49-53 N.	2-22 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-22 N.	4-49 E.
Amſterdam,	Iſle,	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	21-09 S.	174-51 W.
Ancona,	March of Ancona,	Italy,	Europe,	43-37 N.	13-35 E.
Angra,	Tercera Iſle,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-39 N.	27-07 W.
Antigua (St. John's Town)	Antigua Iſle,	Carib. ſea,	N. America,	17-04 N.	62-04 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia,	36-30 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-13 N.	04-27 E.
Apæ (Iſle)	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia,	16-46 S.	168-32 E.
Archangel,	Dwina,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	64-34 N.	38-59 E.
Archipelago,	IſlandsofGreeee,	Europe,		Mediterranean Sea.	
Aſcenſion Iſle,		South Atlantic	Ocean,	7-56 N.	14-27 W.
Aſtracan,	Aſtracan,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	46-00 N.	51-00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe,	38-05 N.	23-57 E.
St. Auguſtin,	Madagaſcar,	SouthIndianſea,	Africa,	23-35 S.	43-13 E.
AVA,	Ava,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	20-20 N.	95-39 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Avignon,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-57 N.	04-53 E.
Aurora Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	15-08 S.	168-22 E.
B Agdad,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Aſia,	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
B Balaſore,	Orixa,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	21-20 N.	86-95 E.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia,	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America,	39-35 S.	81-10 W.
Baltic ſea,	between	Germ. and Swed.	Europe,	Atlantic	Ocean.
Barbuda Iſle,		Atlantic ocean,	N. America,	17-49 N.	61-55 W.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe,	41-26 N.	02-18 E.
Baſil,	Baſil,	Switzerland,	Europe,	47-35 N.	07-34 E.
Baſſe Terre,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. ſea,	N. America,	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Baſſora,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Aſia,	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Baſtia,	Corſica,	Italy,	Europe,	42-20 N.	09-40 E.
Batavia,	Java,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	06-10 S.	106-56 E.
Bath,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe,	51-22 N.	02-16 W.
Bay of Biſcay,	Coaſt of	France,	Europe,	Atlantic	Ocean.
Bay of Bengal,	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia,	Indian	Ocean.
Bayeux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-16 N.	00-47 E.
Bayonne,	Gaſcony,	France,	Europe,	43-29 N.	01-25 W.
Belfaſt,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe,	54-30 N.	06-30 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe,	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	03-49 S.	102-05 E.
Bender,	Baſſarabia,	Turkey,	Europe,	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
Berlin,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe,	52-32 N.	13-31 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Iſles,	Atlantic ocean,	N America,	32-25 N.	63-23 W.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe,	47-00 N.	07-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-48 N.	01-45 W.
Bilboa,	Biſcay,	Spain,	Europe,	43-26 N.	03-18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-30 N.	01-50 W.
Black, or Euxine ſea,	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia,		
Bokharia,	Uſbec	Tartary,	Aſia,	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
Bolabola,	Iſle,	Pacific ocean,	Aſia,	16-32 N.	151-47 W.
Bologna,	Bologneſe,	Italy,	Europe,	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bologne,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bolſcheriſkoi,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Borroughſtonneſs,	Linlithgowſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-48 N.	03-44 W.
Boſton,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-10 N.	00-25 E.
Boston,	New England,	North,	America,	42-25 N.	70-32 E.
Bourbon Iſle,	South	Indian ocean,	Africa,	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
Bourdeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-50 N.	00-29 W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-40 N.	04-40 E.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	53-25 N.	08-20 E.
Breslau,	Sileſia,	Bohemia,	Europe,	51-03 N.	17-13 E.
Breſt,	Bretany,	France,	Europe,	48-22 N.	04-25 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Bridge Town,	Barbadoes,	Atlantic ocean,	N. America,	13-05 N.	58-03 W.
Briſtol,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe,	51-33 N.	02-40 W.
Britiſh ſea,	Between	Brit. and Germ.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-16 N.	03-05 W.
Brunſwick,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
Bruſſels,	Brabant	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-51 N.	04-26 E.
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe,	47-40 N.	19-20 E.
Buenos Ayres,	La Plata,	Braſil,	South America,	34-35 S.	58-26 E.
Buckaraſt,	Walachia,	Turkey;	Europe,	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
Burlington,	Jerſey,	North	America,	40-08 N.	75-00 W.
CAbello (Port),	Terra Firma,	South	America,	10-03 N.	67-27 W.
Cachao,	Tonquin,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	21-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cadiz,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe,	36-31 N.	6-06 W.
Caen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-11 N.	0-16 W.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe,	39-25 N.	9-38 E.
Cahors,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-26 N.	1-31 E.
Cairo,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa,	30-02 N.	31-23 E.
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	50-57 N.	1-55 E.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
Callao,	Peru,	South	America,	12-01 N.	76-53 W.
Calmar,	Smaland,	Sweden,	Europe,	56-40 N.	16-26 E.
Cambray,	Cambreſis,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
Cambletown,	Argyleſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-30 N.	5-40 W.
Cambodia,	Cambodia,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	13-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cambridge,	Cambridgeſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-12 N.	0-09 E.
Cambridge,	New	England,	N. America,	42-25 N.	71-05 W.
Canary, N. E. Point.	Canary Iſles,	Atlantic ocean,	Africa,	28-13 N.	15-33 W.
Candia,	Candia Iſland,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe,	35-18 N.	25-23 E.
Candy,	Ceylon,	Indian ocean	Aſia,	7-54 N.	79-00 E.
Canſo Port,	Nova Scotia,	North	America,	45-20 N.	60-50 W.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe,	51-16 N.	1-15 E.
Canton,	Canton,	China,	Aſia,	23-07 N.	113-07 E.
Cape Clear,	Iriſh Sea,	Ireland,	Europe,	51-18 N.	11-10 W.
— Comorin,	On this ſide the Ganges,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	7-56 N.	78-10 E.
— Finiſterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe,	42-51 N.	9-12 W.
— Florida,	Eaſt Florida,	North	America,	24-57 N.	80-30 W.
— of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa,	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
— Horn,	Terra del Fuego Iſland,	South	America,	55-58 S.	67-21 W.
— St. Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe,	37-02 N.	8-57 W.
— Verd		Negroland,	Africa,	14-45 N.	17-28 W

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Cardigan,	Cardiganſhire,	Wales,	Europe,	52-10 N.	4-38 W.
Carleſcroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe,	56-20 N.	15-31 E.
Carliſle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe,	54-47 N.	2-35 W.
Carthage, Ruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa,	36-30 N.	9-00 E.
Carthagena,	Terra Firma,	South	America,	10-26 N.	75-21 W.
Carthagena,	Murcia,	Spain,	Europe,	37-37 N.	1-03 W.
Caſan,	Caſan,	Siberia,	Aſia,	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Caſpian Sea,	Ruſſia,	Tartary,	Aſia,		
Caſſel,	Heſſe Caſſel,	Germany,	Europe,	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
Caſtres,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catherine's Iſle,	Atlantic	Ocean,	South America,	27-55 S.	49-12 W.
Cattegate,	Between	Swed. & Den.	Europe,	Atlantic	Ocean.
Cavan,	Cavan,	Ireland,	Europe,	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne,	Cayenne Iſle,	South	America,	4-56 N.	52-10 W.
Cette,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-23 N.	3-47 E.
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa,	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Challon,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe,	46-46 N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagore,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
CHARLESTOWN	South Carolina,	North	America,	32-45 N.	79-12 W.
Charlton	Iſle,	Hudſon's Bay,	N. America,	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe,	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Cheſter,	Cheſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-15 N.	3-00 W.
Chriſtmas Sound,	Terra del Fuego,	South	America,	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
St. Chriſtopher's Iſle,	Caribbean	Sea,	N. America,	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Patro Di S. Petro,	Italy,	Europe,	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Iſles,	Atlantic	Ocean,	South America,	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe,	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Alſace,	France,	Europe,	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Elec. of Cologne,	Germany,	Europe,	50-55 N.	7-10 E.
Conſtance,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe,	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe,	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Iſle,	Denmark,	Europe,	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe,	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
Cork,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe,	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-25 N.	1 25 W.
Cowes,	Iſle of Wight,	England,	Europe,	50-46 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe,	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremſmunſter,	Arch-duchy of Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-03 N.	14-12 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Cummin,	Iſle,	North Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	31-40 N.	129-09 E.
Cummin,	Curaſſou Iſle,	Weſt India	America,	11-56 N.	68-20 W.
Cuſco,	Peru,	South	America,	12-25 S.	70-00 W.
DAcca,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Damaſcus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia,	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,	Poliſh Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe,	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Dax,	Gaſcony,	France,	Europe,	43-42 N.	0-58 W.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-06 N.	4-05 E.
Delhi,	Delhi,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	29-00 N.	76-30 E.
Derbent,	Daghiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia,	41-41 N.	50-30 E.
Derby,	Derbyſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-58 N.	1-30 W.
Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe,	54-52 N.	7-40 W.
Dieppe,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-55 N.	0-59 E.
Dieu,	Guzerat,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
Dijon,	Burgandy,	France,	Europe,	47-19 N.	4-57 E.
Dilbingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe,	48-30 N.	10-19 E.
Dol,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-33 N.	1-41 W.
Dominique,	Windward Iſlands,	Weſt India,	America,	15-18 N.	61-22 W.
Dover,	Kent	England,	Europe,	51-07 N.	1-13 E.
Dresden,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	51-00 N.	13-36 E.
Dreux,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe,	48-44 N.	1-16 E.
Dublin,	Leinſter,	Ireland,	Europe,	53-21 N.	6-01 W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbarton-ſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-44 N.	4-20 W.
Dumfries,	Dumfriesſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-08 N.	3-25 W.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-58 N.	2-25 W.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-26 N.	2-48 W.
Dungeneſs,	Kent,	England,	Europe,	50-52 N.	1-04 E.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-02 N.	2-27 E.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe,	54-48 N.	1-25 W.
EAoowe Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia,	21-24 S.	174-25 W.
Eaſter Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	America,	27-06 S.	109-41 W.
Eaſtern Ocean,	betw. the N. W. of N. Amer. and N. E. of Aſia, N. Pacific ocean.				
Edinburgh,	Edinburgh-ſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-57 N.	3-07 W.
Edyſtone,	Eng. Channel,	England,	Europe,	50-08 N.	4-19 W.
Elbing,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe,	54-15 N.	20-00 E.
Embden,	Weſtaphalia,	Germany,	Europe,	53-25 N.	7-10 E.
Enatum Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia,	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
Enebrun,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe,	44-34 N.	6-34 E.
Engliſh Channel,	between	England and France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Epheſus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia,	38-01 N.	27-30 E.
Erramanga Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia,	18-46 S.	169-23 E.
Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Aſia,	39-56 N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coaſt of	Guinea,	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	

Names of Places,	*Provinces,*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Evereux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-01 N.	1-13 E.
Euſtatia Town,	Carib. ſea,	Weſt India,	N. Amer.	17-29 N.	63-05 W.
Exeter,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe,	50 44 N.	3-29 W.
FAlkirk,	Sterling,	Scotland,	Europe,	55 88 N.	3-48 W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-32 N.	28-36 W.
Ferdinand Naronka,		Braſil,	South America,	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara,	Ferrareſe,	Italy,	Europe,	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe,	43-30 N.	8-40 W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa,	33-30 N.	6-00 W.
Florence,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe,	43-46 N.	11-07 E.
Flores,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	39-34 N.	30-51 W.
St. Flour,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe,	45-01 N.	3-10 E.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	12-05 N.	80-55 E.
France (Iſle of)	Indian	Ocean,	Africa,	20-09 S.	57-33 E.
Francfort on the Main,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe,	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
Frawenburgh,	Poliſh	Pruſſia,	Europe,	54-22 N.	20-12 E.
Fuego Iſle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
Funchal,	Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Furneaux Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia,	17-11 S.	143-01 W.
GAP,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe,	44 33 N.	6-09 E.
Geneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe,	46-12 N.	6-05 E.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe,	44-25 N.	8-30 E.
Genes,	Savoy,	Italy,	Europe,	44-25 N.	8-40 E.
St. George's Iſle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-39 N.	27-55 W.
St. George's Fort,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
St. George Town,	Bermudas,	Atlantic Ocean,	North America,	32-45 N.	65-30 W.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-03 N.	3-48 E.
Gibraltar,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe,	36-05 N.	5-17 W.
Glaſgow,	Lanerkſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-51 N.	4-10 W.
Glouceſter,	Glouceſterſhire,	England,	Europe,	51-05 N.	2-16 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Goat Iſle,	Indian	Ocean,	Aſia,	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gombroon,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia,	27-30 N.	74- 0 E.
Gomera Iſle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-05 N.	17-03 W.
Good Hope Town,	Hottentots,	Caffres,	Africa,	33-55 S.	18-28 E.
Goree,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa,	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe,	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Gottengen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe,	51-31 N.	9-58 E.
Granville,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	48-50 N.	1-32 W.
Gratioſa,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	39 02 N.	27-53 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Gratz,	Stiria,	Germany,	Europe,	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines,	Fr. Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-59 N.	2-13 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-52 N.	4-22 W.
Gryphiſwald,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe,	54-04 N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe,	Carribbean	Sea,	North America,	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Guam,	Ladrone Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	14-00 N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia,	Coaſt of	Sweden,	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— of California,	between	California, and Mexico,	North America,	Pacific Ocean.	
—— of Finland,	between	Sweden and Ruſſia,	Europe,	Baltic Sea.	
—— of St. Laurence,	Coaſt of	New Scotland,	North America,	Atlantic Ocean.	
—— of Mexico,	Coaſt of	Mexico,	North America,	Atlantic Ocean.	
—— of Ormus,	between	Perſia and Arabia,	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
—— of Perſia,	between	Perſia and Arabia,	Aſia,	Indian Ocean.	
—— of Venice,	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe,	Mediterranean Sea.	
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-20 N.	4-10 E.
Hague,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-04 N.	4-22 E.
Hamburg,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe,	53-34 N.	9-53 E.
Halifax,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-45 N.	1-52 W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	America,	44 40 N.	63-15 W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	52-32 N.	9-35 E.
Haſtings,	Suſſex,	England,	Europe,	50-52 N.	4-06 E.
Havannah,	Cuba	Iſland,	North America,	23-11 N.	82-13 W.
Havre de Grace,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-29 N.	0-10 E.
La Heeſe,	D. Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-25 N.	4-50 E.
St. Helena, (Ja. Town,)	South	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	15-55 S.	5-44 W.
Helleſpont,	Mediterranean and Black Sea,	Europe and	Aſia,		
Hernoſand,	W. Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe,	62-38 N.	17-58 E.
Hereford,	Herefordſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-06 N.	2-38 W.
Hervey's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	19-17 S.	158-43 W.
Hoai-Naghan,	Kian-Nan,	China,	Aſia,	33-34 N.	118-54 E.
La Hogue, Cape,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-44 N.	1-51 W.
Hood's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	9-26 S.	138-47 W.
Hoogſtraten,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-24 N.	4-52 E.
Howe's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-46 S.	154-01 W.
Huaheine Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-44 S.	151-01 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Hudſon's Bay,	Coaſt of	Labrador,	North America,	N. Atlantic Ocean.	
Hull,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-45 N.	0-12 W.
JAkutſkoi,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	62-01 N.	129-52 E.
Janeiro (Rio),		Braſil,	South America,	22-54 S.	42-38 W.
Jaſſy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe,	47-08 N.	27-34 E.
Java Head,	Java Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	6-49 S.	106-55 E.
Jeddo,	Japan Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	36-20 N.	139-92 E.
Jeruſalem,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia,	31-55 N.	35-25 E.
Immer Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	19-16 S.	169-51 E.
Indian Ocean,		Coaſt of India,	Aſia,		
Ingoldſtadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
Inverneſs,	Inverneſsſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	57-33 N.	4-02 W.
St. John's Town,	Antigua,	Leeward Iſles,	N. Amer.	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
St. John's Town,	Newfoundland,	North	America,	47-32 N.	52-21 W.
St. Joſeph's	California,	Mexico,	North America,	23-03 N.	109-37 W.
Iriſh Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland,			Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Irraname Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	19-31 S.	170-26 E.
Iſlamabad,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
Iſle of Pines,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia,	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
Iſthmus of Suez joins Africa to Aſia.					
——— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.					
——— of Panama, joins North and South America.					
——— of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Aſia.					
Ivica Iſle,	Mediterr. Sea,	Italy,	Europe,	38-50 N.	1-40 E.
Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia,	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
Juthia,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
KAmtſchatka	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	57-10 N.	163 00 E.
Kedgere,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	21-48 N.	88-55 E.
Kelſo,	Roxborough-ſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-38 N.	2-12 W.
Kilmarnock,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-38 N.	4-30 W.
Kinſale,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe,	51-32 N.	8-20 W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	Weſt Indies,	America,	18-15 N.	76-38 W.
Kiow,	Ukraine,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	50-30 N.	31-12 E.
Kola,	Lapland,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
Koningſberg,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe,	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
LAguna,	Teneriffe,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	28-28 N.	16-13 W.
Lahor,	Lahor,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	32-40 N.	75-30 E.
Lancaſter,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe,	54-05 N.	2-55 E.
Landau,	Alſace,	France,	Europe,	49-11 N.	8-02 E.
Landſcroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe,	55-52 N.	12-51 E.
Lauſanne,	Canton of Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe,	46-31 N.	6-50 E.
Leeds,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-48 N.	1-29 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarters.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Leiceſter,	Leiceſterſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-38 N.	1-03W.
Leipſic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	51-19 N.	12-25 E.
Leith,	Edinburghſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-58 N.	3-00W.
Leper's Iſland,	S. Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia,	15-23 S.	168-03 E.
Leſkard,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	50-26 N.	4-36W.
Leſparre,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	45-18 N.	0-52W.
Levant ſea,	Coaſt of	Syria,	Aſia,	Mediterranean ſea.	
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-10 N.	4-32 E.
Liege,	Biſhopric of Liege,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-37 N.	5-40 E.
Lima,	Peru,	South	America,	12-01 S.	76-44W.
Limerick,	Limerickſhire,	Ireland,	Europe,	52-35 N.	8-48W.
Limoges,	Limoges,	France,	Europe,	45-49 N.	1-20 E.
Lincoln,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-15 N.	0-27W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgow-ſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-56 N.	3-30W.
Lintz,	Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-16 N.	13-57 E.
Liſbon,	Eſtremadura,	Portugal,	Europe,	38-42 N.	9-04W.
Liſle,	French Fland.	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-37 N.	3-09 E.
Litchfield,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-43 N.	1-04W.
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	49-57 N.	5-10W.
LONDON,	Middleſex,	England,	Europe,	51-31 N.	1ſt Meridian
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe,	50-00 N.	7-40W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe,	43-15 N.	14-15 E.
Louiſburgh,	Cape Breton Iſle,	North	America,	45-53 N.	59-48W.
Louvain,	Auſtrian Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-53 N.	4-49 E.
Louveau,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	12-42 N.	100-56 E.
Lubec,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe,	54-00 N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia Iſle,	Windward Iſles,	Weſt Indies,	N. America,	13-24 N.	60-46W.
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe,	55-41 N.	13-26 E.
Luneville,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe,	48-35 N.	6-35 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands	Europe,	49-37 N.	6-16 E.
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe,	45-45 N.	4-54 E.
Macao,	Canton,	China,	Aſia,	22-12 N.	113-51 E.
Macaſſar,	Celebes Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	5-09 S.	119-53 E.
Madeira Funchal,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa,	32-37 N.	17-01W.
Madras,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
MADRID,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe,	40-25 N.	3-20 E.
Magdalena Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	10-25 S.	138-44W.
Mahon, Port,	Minorca,	Mediterr. ſea,	Europe,	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Majorca,	Iſle,	Mediterr. ſea.	Europe,	39-35 N.	2-34 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	02-12 N.	102-10 E.
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-01 N.	4-33 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Mallicola (Iſle)	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-15 N.	167-44 E.
St. Maloes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-38 N.	1-53W.
Malta Iſle,	Mediterranean	Sea,	Africa,	35-54 N.	14-33 E.
Manilla,	Luconia Phil-lip. Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	14-36 N.	120-58 E.
MANTUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe,	45-20 N.	10-47 E.
Maregalante Iſle	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. Amer.	15-55 N.	61-06W.
Marſeilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-17 N.	5-27 E.
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America,	11-26 N.	73-59W.
St. Martin's Iſle,	Caribbean Iſles,	Weſt Indies,	America,	18-04 N.	62-57W.
Martinico Iſle,	Caribbean Iſles,	Weſt Indies,	America,	14-44 N.	61-16W.
St. Mary's Iſle,	Scilly Iſles,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	49-57 N.	6-38W.
St. Mary's Town,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	36-56 N.	25-04W.
Maſkelyne Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-32 S.	168-04 E.
Mauritius,	Indian	Ocean,	Africa,	20-09 S.	57-34 E.
Maurua Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-25 S.	152-37 E.
Mayence,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe,	49-54 N.	8-25 E.
Mayo Iſle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	15-10 N.	23-00W.
Meaux,	Champagne,	France,	Europe,	48-57 N.	2-57 E.
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia,	21-45 N.	41-00 E.
Medina,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia,	25-00 N.	39-53 E.
Mediter. ſea,	Between	Europe and	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa,	34-30 N.	6-00 E.
MESSINA,	Sicily Iſland,	Italy,	Europe,	38-30 N.	15-40 E.
Mergui,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	12-12 N.	98-13 E.
Mexico,	Mexico,	North	America,	19-54 N.	100-00W.
Miatea Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	17-52 S.	148-01W.
St. Michael's Iſle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	37-47 N.	25-37W.
Middleburgh Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	21-20 S.	174-29W.
MILAN,	Milaneſe,	Italy,	Europe,	45-25 N.	9-30 E.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe,	51-45 N.	5-15W.
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia,	13-40 N.	43-50 E.
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe,	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	America,	45-35 N.	73-11W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe,	43-36 N.	3-37 E.
Montague Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	17-26 S.	168-36 E.
Montroſe,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-34 N.	2-20W.
Montſerrat Iſle,	Caribbean Iſles,	Weſt India,	America,	16-47 N.	62-12W.
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa,	30-32 N.	6-10W.
Moscow,	Moſcow,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	55-45 N.	37-50 E.
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-09 N.	11-35 E.
Munſter,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe,	52-00 N.	7-10 E.
NAmur,	Namur,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-28 N.	4-49 E.
Nancy,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe,	48-41 N.	6-16 E.
Nangaſachi,	Japan,	N. Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	32-32 N.	128-51 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Nanking,	Kiangan,	China,	Aſia,	32-00 N.	118-30 E.
Nantes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	47-13 N.	1-28W.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe,	40-50 N.	14-18 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	59-00 N.	27-35 E.
New York,	New York,	North	America,	40-40 N.	74-00W.
Newcaſtle,	Northumberland,	England,	Europe,	55-03 N.	1-24W.
Newport,	Rhode Iſland,	North	America,	41-35 N.	71-06W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe,	43-41 N.	7-22 E.
St. Nicholas Mole,	Hiſpaniola,	Weſt Indies,	America,	19-49 N.	73-24W.
Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-07 N.	2-50 E.
Nineveh,	Curdiſtan,	Turkey,	Aſia,	36-00 N.	45-00 E.
Ningpo,	Chekiang,	China,	Aſia,	29-57 N.	120-23 E.
Norfolk Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	29-01 S.	168-15 E.
Noriton,	Pennſylvania,	North	America,	40-09 N.	75-18W.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe,	71-10 N.	26-02 E.
Northampton,	Northamptonſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-15 N.	0-55W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe,	52-40 N.	1-25 E.
Nuremberg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe,	49-27 N.	11-12 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-00 N.	1-06W.
OChotſkoi,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	9 40 S.	138 56W.
Ohitahoo Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	9-55 S.	139-01W.
Oleron Iſle,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe,	46-02 N.	1-20W.
Olinde,	Braſil,	South	America,	8-13 S.	35-00W.
Olmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe,	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
Olympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe,	37-30 N.	22-00 E.
St. Omer's,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	50-44 N.	2-19 E.
Onateayo Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	9-58 S.	138-46W.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe,	41-10 N.	8-22W.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa,	36 30 N.	0-05 E.
Orenburg,	Tartary,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
L'Orient, Port	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	47-45 N.	3-20W.
Orleans,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe,	47-54 N.	1-59 E.
Orleans, New	Louiſiana,	North	America,	29-57 N.	89 53W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Iſle,	Perſia,	Aſia,	26-50 N.	57-00 E.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-23 N.	16-19W.
Orſk,	Tartary,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	51-12 N.	58-37 E.
Oſnaburg-Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Oſtend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-13 N.	3-00 E.
Otaheite,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	17-29 S.	149-35W.
Owhyee,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	22-10 S.	199-00 E.
Oxford Obſervatory,	Oxfordſhire,	England,	Europe,	51-45 N.	1-10W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
PAcificor Ori-ental Ocean,	Between	Afia and	America,		
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe,	45-22 N.	12-00 E.
Paiſley,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	55-48 N.	4-08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Iſle,	Italy,	Europe,	38-30 N.	13-43 E.
Palliſer's Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Afia,	15-38 S.	146-25 W.
Palma Iſle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-36 N.	17-45 W.
Palmerſton's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Afia,	18-00 S.	162-52 W.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Afia,	33-00 N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. Amer.	8-47 N.	80-16 W.
Paoom Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Afia,	16-30 S.	168-33 E.
Paris, (Obſerv.)	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe,	48-50 N.	2-25 E.
Parma,	Parmaſan,	Italy,	Europe,	44-45 N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Afia,	25-45 N.	83-00 E.
Patrixfiord,	Iceland,	N.Atlan.Ocean,	Europe,	65-35 N.	14-05 W.
Pau,	Bearn,	France,	Europe,	43-15 N.	0-04 W.
St. Paul's Iſle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa,	37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	Eaſt India,	Afia,	17-00 N.	97-00 E.
Peking,	Petchi-li,	China,	Afia,	39-54 N.	116-29 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe,	51-45 N.	4-50 W.
PENSACOLA,	Weſt Florida,	North	America,	30-22 N.	87-20 W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	50-08 N.	6-00 W.
Perigueux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	45-11 N.	0-48 E.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe,	43-53 N.	7-45 E.
Perth,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-22 N.	3-12 W.
Perth-amboy,	New York,	North,	America,	40-30 N.	74-20 W.
Perſepolis,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Afia,	30-30 N.	54-00 E.
St. Peter's Fort,	Martinico,	W. Indies,	N. Amer.	14-44 N.	61-16 W.
St. Peter's Iſle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	America,	46-46 N.	56-12 W.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	59-56 N.	30-24 E.
Petropawloſkoi,	Kamtſchatka,	Ruſſia,	Afia,	53-01 N.	158-40 E.
Philadelphia,	Pennſylvania,	North	America,	39-56 N.	75-09 W.
St. Philips Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe,	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Pickerſgill Iſle,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	America,	54-42 S.	36-53 W.
Pico,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-28 N.	28-21 W.
Pines, Iſle of,	N. Caledonia,	Pacific Ocean,	Afia,	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Piſa,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe,	43-43 N.	10-17 E.
Placentia,	Newfoundland Iſle,	North	America,	47-26 N.	55-00 W.
Plymouth,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe,	50-22 N.	4-10 W.
Plymonth,	New England,	North	America,	41-48 N.	70-25 W.
Pollingen,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe,	47-48 N.	10-48 E.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Afia,	11-41 N.	79-57 E.
Ponoi,	Lapland,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	67-06 N.	36-28 E.
Porto Bello,	Terra Firma,	South	America,	9-33 N.	79-45 W.
Porto Sancto Iſle,	Maderia,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	32-58 N.	16-20 W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica,	Weſt Indies,	America,	18-00 N.	76-40 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Port Royal,	Martinico,	Weſt Indies,	America,	14-35 N.	61-04 W.
Portland Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	39-25 S.	178-17 E.
Portland Iſle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	63-22 N.	18-49 W.
Portſmouth Town,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe,	50-47 N.	01-01 W.
—— Academy,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe,	50-48 N.	1-01 W.
Portſmouth,	New England,	North	America,	43-10 N.	70-20 W.
Potoſi,	Peru,	South	America,	21-00 S.	77-00 W.
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe,	50-04 N.	14-50 E.
Preſburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe,	48-20 N.	17-30 W.
Preſton,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-45 N.	2-50 W.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America,	58-47 N	94-02 W.
Providence,	New England,	North	America,	41-50 N.	71-21 W.
Pulo Candor Iſle,	Indian Ocean,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	8-40 N.	107-25 E.
Pulo Timor Iſle,	Gulf of Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	3-00 N.	104-30 E.
Pyleſtaart Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	22-23 S.	175-36 W.
Quebec,	Canada,	North	America,	46-55 N.	69-48 W.
Queen Charlotte's Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	10-11 S.	164-35 E.
St. Quintin,	Picardy,	France,	Europe,	49-50 N.	3-22 E.
Quito,	Peru,	South	America,	0-13 S.	77-55 W.
Raguſa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe,	42-45 N.	18-25 E.
Ramhead,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe,	50-18 N.	4-15 W.
Ratiſbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-56 N.	12-05 E.
Rhée Iſle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe,	46-14 N.	1-29 W.
Recif,	Braſil,	South	America,	8-10 S.	35-30 W.
Rennes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
Reſolution Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	17-23 S.	141-40 W.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe,	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes,	Rhode Iſland,	Levant ſea,	Aſia,	36-20 N.	28-00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	56-55 N.	24-00 E.
Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe,	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
Rochelle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe,	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
Rochfort,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe,	46-02 N.	0-53 W.
Rock of Liſbon,	Mouth of Tagus River,	Portugal,	Europe,	38-45 N.	9-30 W.
Rodez,	Guienne,	France,	Europe,	44-21 N.	2-39 E.
Rodrigues Iſle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa,	10-40 N.	63-15 E.
Rome, (St. Peter's)	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe,	41-53 N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	51-6 N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	20-16 N.	174-25 W.
Rouen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe,	49-26 N.	1-00 W.
Saba Iſle,	Carib. ſea,	Weſt India,	America,	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
Sagan,	Sileſia,	Germany,	Europe,	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
St. Auguſtin,	Eaſt Florida,	North	America,	29-45 N.	81-12 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
St. Domingo,	Carib. Sea,	Weſt Indies,	America,	18-20 N.	70-00 W.
St. George's Channel,	Between	England, and Ireland,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
St. Jago,	Chili,	South	America,	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
St. Salvador,	Braſil,	South	America,	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
Saliſbury,	Wiltſhire,	England,	Europe,	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
Sall Iſle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	16-38 N.	22-51 W.
Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe,	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Iſles,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	30-00 N.	15-49 W.
Samana,	Hiſpaniola,	Weſt Indies,	America,	19-15 N.	69-11 W.
Samarcand,	Uſbec	Tartary,	Aſia,	40-40 N.	69-00 E.
Samaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Aſia,	32-40 N.	38-00 E.
Sandwich Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
Santa Fé,	New Mexico,	North	America,	36-00 N.	104-00 W.
Savage Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	19-02 S.	169-25 W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North	America,	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
Saunder's Iſle,	South Georgia,	S. Atlantic Ocean,	South America,	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
Sayd, or Thebes,	Upper	Egypt,	Africa,	27-00 N.	32-20 E.
Scarborough,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe,	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
Schwezingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe,	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
Scone,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
Sea of Aſoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and	Aſia,		
—— Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe, and	Aſia,	Black ſea.	
—— Ochotſk,	Between	Siberia, and Kamſchatka,	Aſia,	N. Pacific Ocean.	
—— Yellow,	Between Eaſtern	Tartary, China, and Corea,		N. Pacific Ocean.	
Sedan,	Champagne,	France,	Europe,	49-42 N.	5-02 E.
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa,	15-53 N.	16-26 W.
Seville,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe,	37-15 N.	6-05 W.
Sheerneſs,	Kent,	England,	Europe,	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Shepherd's Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-58 S.	168-47 E.
Shields (South,)	Durham,	England,	Europe,	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Shrewſbury,	Shropſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-43 N.	2-46 W.
Siam,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Aſia,	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Si-gham-fu,	Chenſi,	China,	Aſia,	34-16 N.	108-48 E.
Siſteron,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe,	44-11 N.	6-01 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia,	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Sombavera Iſles,	Carib. Sea,	Weſt Indies,	N. America,	18-38 N.	63-32 W.
Soloo Iſle,	Philip. Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	5-57 N.	121-20 E.
Southampton,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe,	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Spaw,	Leige,	Germany,	Europe,	50-30 N.	5-40 E.
Stafford,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-50 N.	2-00 W.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe,	59-20 N.	18-08 E.
Sterling,	Sterlingſhire,	Scotland,	Europe,	56-10 N.	3-50 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Aſia, Red Sea.					
—— of Dover, between England and France, Engliſh Channel.					
—— of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
—— of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Aſia, Indian Ocean.					
—— of Magellan, between Terra del Feugo and Patagonia, South America.					
—— of La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Ocean.					
—— of Ormus, between Perſia and Arabia, Perſian Gulf.					
—— of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Aſia.					
—— of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Ruſſia, Aſia.					
Straſſund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe,	54-23 N.	13-22 E.
Straſburgh,	Alſace,	France,	Europe,	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Straumneſs,	Iceland,	N. Atlan. Ocean,	Europe,	65-39 N.	24-24 W.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa,	29-50 N.	33-27 E.
Sultz,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe,	47-53 N.	7-09 W.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe,	54-55 N.	1-10 W.
Surat,	Guzurat,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	21-10 N.	72-27 E.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America,	6-00 N.	55-30 W.
Syracuſe,	Sicily Iſle,	Italy,	Europe,	36-58 N.	15-05 E.
TABLE Iſland,	New Hebrides,	South Pacific,	Aſia,	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	11-27 N.	79-07 E.
Tanna,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	19-32 S.	169-46 E.
Taoukaa Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	14-30 S.	145-04 W.
Tauris,	Aderbeitzan,	Perſia,	Aſia,	38-20 N.	46-30 E.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Perſia,	Aſia,	43-30 N.	47-00 E.
Temontengis,	Soloo,	Eaſt India,	Aſia,	5-57 N.	120-58 E.
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa,	28-12 N.	16-24 W.
Tercera,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	38-45 N.	27-01 W.
Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa,	35-40 N.	5-18 W.
St. Thomas's Iſle,	Virgin Iſles,	Weſt Indies,	America,	18-21 N.	64-46 W.
Thorn,	Regal Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe,	52-56 N.	19-00 W.
Timor, S. W. Point,		Eaſt India,	Aſia,	10-23 S.	124-04 E.
Timorland S. Point,		Eaſt India,	Aſia,	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
Tobolſki,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Toledo,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe,	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tomſk,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia,	56-29 N.	85-04 E.
Tonga Tabu Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	21-09 S.	174-41 W.
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe,	65-50 N.	24-17 E.
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe,	43-07 N.	6-01 E.
Trapeſond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia,	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe,	46-05 N.	11-02 E.
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa,	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia,	34-30 N.	36-15 E.
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia,	39-30 N.	26-30 E.
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa,	36-47 N.	10-00 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe,	45-05 N.	7-45 E.
Turtle Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	19-48 S.	178-02 W.
Tyre,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia,	32-32 N.	36-00 E.
Tyrnaw,	Trentſchin,	Hungary,	Europe,	48-23 N.	17-38 E.
ULiatea,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	16-45 S.	151-26 W.
Upſal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe,	59-51 N.	17-47 E.
Uraniberg,	Huen Iſle,	Denmark,	Europe,	55-54 N.	12-57 E.
Uſhant Iſle,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe,	48-28 N.	4-59 W.
Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe,	52-07 N.	5-00 E.
Venice,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe,	45-26 N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz,	Mexico,	North	America,	19-12 N.	97-25 W.
Verona,	Veroneſe,	Italy,	Europe,	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Verſailles,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe,	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
Vienna (Obſer.)	Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe,	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe,	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe,	43-53 N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Iſles,	Weſt Indies,	America,	18-18 N.	63-59 W.
WAkefield,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-41 N.	1-28 W.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America,	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Wardhus,	Norwegian Lapland,	Lapland,	Europe,	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warſaw,	Maſſovia,	Poland,	Europe,	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Warwick,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
Waterford,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe,	52-12 N.	7-16 W.
Wells,	Somerſeſhire,	England,	Europe,	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Weſtman Iſles,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe,	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe,	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Whitſuntide Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Williamſburg,	Virginia,	North	America,	37-12 N.	76-48 W.
Willis's Iſles,	South Georgia,	Atlantic Ocean,	America,	54-00 S.	38-24 W.
Wincheſter,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe,	51-06 N.	1-15 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania,	Poland,	Europe,	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Wittenburg,	Upper Saxony,	Germany,	Europe,	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wologda,	Wologda,	Ruſſia,	Europe,	59-19 N.	41-50 E.
Worceſter,	Worceſterſhire,	England,	Europe,	52-09 N.	1-55 W.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe,	49-38 N.	8-05 E.
Woſlak,		Ruſſia,	Europe,	61-15 N.	
Wurtzburg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe,	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
YArmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe,	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe,	53-59 N.	1-01 W.
York-minſter,	Terra del Fuego,	South	America,	55-26 N.	70-03 W.

Greenwich Obſerv. Kent, England, Europe, 51° 28′ 40″ N. 0° 5′ 37″ E. of St. Paul's London.

A

MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE;

The moſt Copious and Authentic that ever was publiſhed, of the preſent State of the Real and Imaginary Monies of the World.

Divided into Four Parts, viz.

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA:

Which are ſubdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the Names of the moſt Capital Places, the Species whereof are inſerted, ſhewing how the Monies are reckoned by the reſpective Nations; and the Figures ſtanding againſt the Denomination of each foreign Piece, is the Engliſh intrinſic Value thereof, according to the beſt Aſſays made at the Mint of the Tower of London.

EXPLANATION.

By real Money, is underſtood an effective Specie, repreſenting in itſelf the Value denominated thereby, as a Guinea, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made Uſe of in keeping Accounts, ſignifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be repreſented but by ſeveral other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All Fractions in the Value Engliſh are Parts of a Penny.

= This Mark ſignifies, *is*, *make*, or *equal to*.

Note, for all the Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Daniſh Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the Weſt Indies, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c.
Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Aberdeen, &c.

				£.	s.	d.
Europe, Northern Parts.	A Farthing	=	- - - -	0	0	0 1/4
	2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny - -	0	0	0 1/2
	2 Halfpence	=	a Penny - -	0	0	1
	4 Pence	=	a Groat - -	0	0	4
	6 Pence	=	a Half Shilling - -	0	0	6
	12 Pence	=	a Shilling - -	0	1	0
	5 Shillings	=	a Crown - -	0	5	0
	20 Shillings	=	a * Pound Sterling -	1	0	0
	21 Shillings	=	a Guinea - -	1	1	0

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

IRELAND.

Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Farthing	=	- - - -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{11}$
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny - -	0	0	0	$\frac{6}{13}$
2 Halfpence	=	* a Penny - -	0	0	0	$\frac{12}{13}$
6½ Pence	=	a Half Shilling - -	0	0	6	
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling Iriſh - -	0	0	11	$\frac{3}{46}$
13 Pence	=	a Shilling - - -	0	1	0	
65 Pence	=	a Crown - - -	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound Iriſh - -	0	18	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
22½ Shillings	=	a Guinea - - -	1	1	0	

FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

Ghent, Oſtend, &c. Antwerp, Bruſſels, &c.

* A Pening	=	- - - -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{100}$
4 Peningens	=	an Urche - -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{40}$
8 Peningens	=	* a Grote - -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{20}$
2 Grotes	=	a Petard - -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{10}$
6 Petards	=	* a Scalin - -	0	0	5	$\frac{2}{5}$
7 Petards	=	a Scalin - -	0	0	6	$\frac{3}{10}$
40 Grotes	=	* a Florin - -	0	1	6	
17½ Scalins	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	=	* a Pound Flemiſh	0	9	0	

HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Fluſhing, &c.

* Pening	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{21}{320}$
8 Peningens	=	* a Grote - -	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{40}$
2 Grotes	=	a Stiver - -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{20}$
6 Stivers	=	a Scalin - -	0	0	6	$\frac{3}{10}$
20 Stivers	=	a Guilder - -	0	1	9	
2 Florins 10 Stivers	=	a Rix-dollar - -	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	=	a Dry Guilder - -	0	5	4	$\frac{3}{4}$
3 Florins 3 Stivers	=	a Silver Ducatoon -	0	5	8	$\frac{4}{25}$
6 Guilders	=	* a Pound Flemiſh - -	0	10	6	
20 Florins	=	a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon	1	16	0	
15 Florins	=	a Ducatoon, another ſort, called a Sovereign - -	1	7	0	

GERMANY.

HAMBURG, *Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.*

* A Tryling	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{128}$
2 Trylings	=	* a Sexling - -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{64}$
2 Sexlings	=	a Fening - -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{32}$
12 Fenings	=	a Shilling Lubec -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{8}$
16 Shillings	=	* a Marc - -	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	=	a Sletch-dollar -	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar -	0	4	6	
4 Marcs	=	a Silver Ducattoon -	0	6	0	
120 Shillings	=	* a Pound Flemiſh -	0	11	3	

EUROPE, Northern Parts. GERMANY.

HANOVER, *Lunenbergh, Zell, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.
* A Fening	=	- - -	0	0	0 7/48
3 Fenings	=	a Dreyer - -	0	0	0 7/16
8 Fenings	=	a Marien - -	0	0	1 1/6
12 Fenings	=	a Groſh - -	0	0	1 1/4
8 Groſhen	=	a Half Gulden -	0	1	2
16 Groſhen	=	a Gulden - -	0	2	4
24 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar - -	0	3	6
32 Groſhen	=	a Double Gulden -	0	4	8
4 Guldens	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	2

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

Dreſden, Leipſic, &c. Wiſmar, Keil, &c.

* An Heller	=	- - -	0	0	0 7/96
2 Hellers	=	a Fening - -	0	0	0 7/48
6 Hellers	=	a Dreyer - -	0	0	0 7/16
16 Hellers	=	a Marien - -	0	0	1 1/6
12 Fenings	=	a Groſh - -	0	0	1 1/4
16 Groſhen	=	a Gould - -	0	2	4
24 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar -	0	3	6
32 Groſhen	=	a Specie-dollar -	0	4	8
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4

BRANDENBURGH AND POMERANIA.

Berlin, Potſdam, &c. Stetin, &c.

* Denier	=	- - -	0	0	0 11/276
9 Deniers	=	a Polchen -	0	0	0 7/36
18 Deniers	=	a Groſh -	0	0	0 7/18
3 Polchens	=	an Abraſs - -	0	0	0 7/72
20 Groſhen	=	* a Marc - -	0	0	9 1/3
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin - -	0	1	2
90 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar -	0	3	6
108 Groſhen	=	an Albertus -	0	4	2
8 Florins	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4

COLOGN. *Mentz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munſter, Paderbourn, &c.*

A Dute	=	- - -	0	0	0 7/180
3 Dutes	=	a Cruitzer - -	0	0	0 21/180
2 Cruitzers	=	an Albus - -	0	0	0 21/40
8 Dutes	=	a Stiver - -	0	0	0 7/10
3 Stivers	=	a Plapert - -	0	0	2 1/10
4 Plaperts	=	a Copſtuck - -	0	0	8 2/3
40 Stivers	=	a Guilder - -	0	2	4
2 Guilders	=	a Hard Dollar -	0	4	8
4 Guilders	=	a Ducat -	0	9	4

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

GERMANY.

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

Prague, Breslau, Presburg, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Fening	=	- - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{8}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer - -	0	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
3 Fenings	=	a Groſh - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{7}$
2 Cruitzers	=	a White Groſh -	0	0	0 $\frac{6}{7}$
62 Cruitzers	=	a Gould - -	0	2	4
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar - -	0	3	6
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar -	0	4	8
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieſte, &c. Augſburg, Blenheim, &c.

A Fening	=	- - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{8}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{7}$
14 Fenings	=	a Groſh - -	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{3}$
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen - -	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{7}$
15 Batzen	=	a Gould - -	0	2	4
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar - -	0	3	6
2 Florins	=	a Specie-dollar -	0	4	6
60 Batzen	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4

FRANCONIA, *Francfort, Nuremberg, Dettingen, &c.*

A Fening	=	- - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{8}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{7}$
3 Cruitzers	=	a Keyſer Groſh -	0	0	1 $\frac{2}{3}$
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen - -	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{7}$
15 Cruitzers	=	an Ort Gould -	0	0	7
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould - -	0	2	4
90 Cruitzers	=	* a Rix-dollar -	0	3	6
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar -	0	4	8
240 Cruitzers	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Cracow, Warſaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningſburg, &c.

A Shellon	=	- - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{45}$
3 Shellons	=	a Groſh - -	0	0	0 $\frac{7}{15}$
5 Groſhen	=	a Couſtic - -	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{3}$
3 Couſtics	=	a Tinſe - -	0	0	7
18 Groſhen	=	an Ort - -	0	0	8 $\frac{2}{5}$
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin - -	0	1	2
90 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar - -	0	3	6
8 Florins	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4
5 Rix-dollars	=	a Frederic d'Or -	0	17	6

LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Blacken	=	- -	0	0	0	7/90
6 Blackens	=	a Groſh -	0	0	0	7/15
9 Blackens	=	a Vording -	0	0	0	7/10
2 Groſhen	=	a Whiten -	0	0	0	14/15
6 Groſhen	=	a Marc -	0	0	2	4/5
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin -	0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	=	* a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groſhen	=	an Albertus -	0	4	2	6/15
64 Whitens	=	a Copper-plate Dollar	0	5	0	

DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.

A Skilling	=	- -	0	0	0	9/15
6 Skillings	=	a Duggen -	0	0	3	3/8
16 Skillings	=	* a Mark -	0	0	9	
20 Skillings	=	a Rix-mark	0	0	11	1/4
24 Skillings	=	a Rix-ort -	0	1	1	1/2
4 Marcs	=	a Crown -	0	3	0	
6 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar -	0	4	6	
11 Marcs	=	a Ducat -	0	8	3	
14 Marcs	=	a Hatt Ducat -	0	10	6	

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.

Stockholm, Upſal, &c. Thorn, &c.

* A Runſtick	=	- - -	0	0	0	7/30
2 Runſticks	=	a Stiver - -	0	0	0	7/18
8 Runſticks	=	a Copper Marc -	0	0	1	5/9
3 Copper Marcs	=	a Silver Marc -	0	0	4	2/3
4 Copper Marcs	=	a Copper Dollar -	0	0	6	2/3
9 Copper Marcs	=	a Caroline -	0	1	2	
3 Copper Dollars	=	a Silver Dollar -	0	1	6	2/3
3 Silver Dollars	=	a Rix-dollar - -	0	4	6	
2 Rix-dollars	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	4	

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.

Peterſburg, Archangel, &c. Moſcow, &c.

A Poluſca	=	- - -	0	0	0	27/200
2 Poluſcas	=	a Denuſca -	0	0	0	27/100
2 Denuſcas	=	* a Copec - -	0	0	0	27/50
3 Copecs	=	an Altin - -	0	0	0	31/50
10 Copecs	=	a Grivener - -	0	0	5	2/5
25 Copecs	=	a Polpotin - -	0	1	1	1/2
50 Copecs	=	a Poltin - -	0	2	3	
100 Copecs	=	a Ruble - -	0	4	6	
2 Rubles	=	a Xervonitz -	0	9	0	

BASIL. *Zurich, Zug, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Rap	=	- - - -	0	0	0	1/4
3 Rapen	=	a Fening - -	0	0	0	1/8
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	1/2
12 Fenings	=	* a Sol - -	0	0	1	1/2
15 Fenings	=	a Coarſe Batzen -	0	0	1	7/8
18 Fenings	=	a Good Batzen -	0	0	2	
20 Sols	=	* a Livre -	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden -	0	2	6	
108 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar -	0	4	6	

St. GALL. *Appenſal, &c.*

An Heller	=	- - -	0	0	0	1/16
2 Hellers	=	a Fening - -	0	0	0	1/8
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer - -	0	0	0	1/2
12 Fenings	=	* a Sol - -	0	0	1	1/2
4 Cruitzers	=	a Coarſe Batzen -	0	0	2	
5 Cruitzers	=	a Good Batzen -	0	0	2	1/2
20 Sols	=	* a Livre - -	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	=	a Goûld - -	0	2	6	
108 Cruitzers	=	a Rix-dollar -	0	4	6	

BERN. *Lucerne, Neufchatel, &c.*

A Denier	=	- -	0	0	0	1/16
4 Deniers	=	a Cruitzer -	0	0	0	2/5
3 Cruitzers	=	* a Sol - -	0	0	1	1/5
4 Cruitzers	=	a Plapert - -	0	0	1	3/5
5 Cruitzers	=	a Gros - -	0	0	2	
6 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen - -	0	0	2	2/5
20 Sols	=	* a Livre - -	0	2	0	
75 Cruitzers	=	a Gulden - -	0	2	6	
135 Cruitzers	=	a Crown - -	0	4	6	

GENEVA. *Pekay, Bonne, &c.*

A Denier	=	- - -	0	0	0	1/32
2 Deniers	=	a Denier current -	0	0	0	1/16
12 Deniers	=	a Small Sol - -	0	0	0	3/8
12 Deniers current	=	a Sol current - -	0	0	0	3/4
12 Small Sols	=	* a Florin - -	0	0	4	1/2
20 Sols current	=	* a Livre current -	0	1	3	
10½ Florins	=	a Patacon - -	0	3	11	1/4
15¾ Florins	=	a Croiſade - -	0	5	10	7/8
24 Florins	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	0	

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

Liſle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Denier	=	- - -	0	0	0	½ 4
12 Deniers	=	a Sol - -	0	0	0	1 2
15 Deniers	=	* a Patard - -	0	0	0	5 8
15 Patards	=	* a Piette -	0	0	9	3 4
20 Sols	=	a Livre Tournois -	0	0	10	
20 Patards	=	* a Florin - -	0	1	0	1 2
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex. -	0	2	6	
10½ Livres	=	a Ducat - -	0	9	3	
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or -	1	0	0	

Dunkirk, St. Omers, St. Quintin, &c.

A Denier	=	- - -	0	0	0	1 4
12 Deniers	=	a Sol - -	0	0	0	1 2
15 Deniers	=	* a Patard - -	0	0	0	5 8
15 Sols	=	* a Piette - -	0	0	7	1 2
20 Sols	=	* a Livre Tournois -	0	0	10	
3 Livres	=	an Ecu of Ex. -	0	2	6	
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or -	1	0	0	
24 Livres	=	a Guinea - - -	1	1	0	
30 ¾ Livres	=	a Moeda - -	1	7	0	

Paris, Lyons, Marſeilles. &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

A Denier	=	- - -	0	0	0	1 4
3 Deniers	=	a Liard - -	0	0	0	1 8
2 Liards	=	a Dardene - -	0	0	0	1 4
12 Deniers	=	a Sol - -	0	0	0	1 2
20 Sols	=	* a Livre Tournois -	0	0	10	
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex. -	0	2	6	
6 Livres	=	an Ecu - -	0	5	0	
10 Livres	=	* a Piſtole - - -	0	8	4	
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or -	1	0	0	

PORTUGAL. *Liſbon, Oporto, &c.*

* A Re	=	- -	0	0	0	27 400
10 Rez	=	a Half Vintin -	0	0	0	27 40
20 Rez	=	a Vintin - -	0	0	1	7 20
5 Vintins	=	a Teſtoon -	0	0	6	3 4
4 Teſtoons	=	a Cruſade of Ex. -	0	2	3	
24 Vintins	=	a New Cruſade -	0	2	8	2 3
10 Teſtoons	=	* a Milre - -	0	5	7	1 2
48 Teſtoons	=	a Moidore - -	1	7	0	
64 Teſtoons	=	a Joaneſe - -	1	16	0	

EUROPE, Southern Parts,

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate.

			£.	s.	d.	
A Maravedie,	=	- - -	0	0	0	45/272
2 Maravedies	=	a Quartil - -	0	0	0	43/136
34 Maravedies	=	a Rial - -	0	0	5	3/8
2 Rials	=	a Piſtarine -	0	0	10	3/4
8 Rials	=	* a Piaſtre of Ex. -	0	3	7	
10 Rials	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
375 Maravedies	=	* a Ducat of Ex. -	0	4	11	1/2
32 Rials	=	* a Piſtole of Ex. -	0	14	4	
36 Rials	=	a Piſtole - -	0	16	9	

Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon.

* A Maravedie	=	- - -	0	0	0	23/273
2 Maravedies	=	an Ochavo - -	0	0	0	23/136
4 Maravedies	=	a Quartil - -	0	0	0	23/68
34 Maravedies	=	* a Rial Velon -	0	0	2	7/8
15 Rials	=	* a Piaſtre of Ex. -	0	3	7	
512 Maravedies	=	a Piaſtre - -	0	3	7	
60 Rials	=	* a Piſtole of Ex. -	0	14	4	
2048 Maravedies	=	a Piſtole of Ex. -	0	14	4	
70 Rials	=	a Piſtole - -	0	16	9	

Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Valentia, &c. Old Plate.

A Maravedie	=	- - -	0	0	0	27/128
16 Maravedies	=	a Soldo - -	0	0	3	3/8
2 Soldos	=	a Rial Old Plate -	0	0	6	3/4
16 Soldos	=	* a Dollar - -	0	4	6	
20 Soldos	=	* a Libra - -	0	5	7	1/2
21 Soldos	=	* a Ducat - -	0	5	10	7/8
22 Soldos	=	* a Ducat - -	0	6	2	1/4
24 Soldos	=	* a Ducat - -	0	6	9	
60 Soldos	=	a Piſtole - -	0	16	9	

ITALY.

GENOA. *Novi, St. Remo, &c.*
CORSICA *Baſtia, &c.*

A Denari	=	- - -	0	0	0	43/1200
12 Denari	=	a Soldi - -	0	0	0	43/100
4 Soldi	=	a Chevelet - -	0	0	1	18/25
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire - -	0	0	8	3/5
30 Soldi	=	a Teſtoon -	0	1	0	9/16
5 Lires	=	a Croiſade -	0	3	7	
115 Soldi	=	* a Pezzo of Ex. -	0	4	2	
6 Teſtoons	=	a Genouine -	0	6	2	
20 Lires	=	a Piſtole - -	0	14	4	

EUROPE, Southern Parts. ITALY.

PIEDMONT, SAVOY AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Denari	=	- - -	0	0	0 1/16
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini - -	0	0	0 3/16
12 Denari	=	a Soldi - -	0	0	0 3/4
12 Soldi	=	* a Florin - -	0	0	9
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire - -	0	1	3
6 Florins	=	a Scudi - -	0	4	6
7 Florins	=	a Ducatoon - -	0	5	3
13 Lires	=	a Piſtole - -	0	16	3
16 Lires	=	a Louis d'Or -	1	0	0

Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.

A Denari	=	- - -	0	0	0 8/82
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini - -	0	0	0 9/82
12 Denari	=	a Soldi - -	0	0	0 18/41
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire - -	0	0	8 32/41
115 Soldi	=	a Scudi current -	0	4	2 1/2
117 Soldi	=	* a Scudi of Ex. -	0	4	3
6 Lires	=	a Philip - -	0	4	4 1/2
22 Lires	=	a Piſtole - -	0	16	0
23 Lires	=	a Spaniſh Piſtole -	0	16	9

Leghorn, Florence, &c.

A Denari	=	- - - -	0	0	0 5/144
4 Denari	=	a Quatrini - -	0	0	0 5/36
32 Denari	=	a Soldi - -	0	0	0 5/12
5 Quatrini	=	a Craca - -	0	0	0 25/36
8 Cracas	=	a Quilo - -	0	0	5 5/9
20 Soldi	=	* a Lire - -	0	0	8 1/3
6 Lires	=	a Piaſtre of Ex. -	0	4	2
7 1/2 Lires	=	a Ducat - -	0	5	2 1/2
22 Lires	=	a Piſtole - -	0	15	6

ROME. *Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.*

A Quatrini	=	- - - -	0	0	0 3/20
5 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc - -	0	0	0 3/4
8 Bayocs	=	a Julio - -	0	0	6
10 Bayocs	=	a Stampt Julio -	0	0	7 1/2
24 Bayocs	=	a Teſtoon - -	0	1	6
10 Julios	=	a Crown current -	0	5	0
12 Julios	=	* a Crown Stampt -	0	6	0
18 Julios	=	a Chequin - -	0	9	0
31 Julios	=	a Piſtole - -	0	15	6

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

NAPLES. *Gaieta, Capua, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Quatrini	=	- - -	0	0	0	2/15
3 Quatrini	=	a Grain - -	0	0	0	2/5
10 Grains	=	a Carlin - -	0	0	4	
40 Quartrini	=	a Paulo - -	0	0	5	1/2
20 Grains	=	a Tarin - -	0	0	8	
40 Grains	=	a Teſtoon - -	0	1	4	
100 Grains	=	a Ducat of Ex. -	0	3	4	
23 Tarins	=	a Piſtole - - -	0	15	4	
25 Tarins	=	a Spaniſh Piſtole -	0	16	9	

SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Meſſina, &c.*

A Pichila	=	- - -	0	0	0	1/30
6 Pichili	=	a Grain - -	0	0	0	2/11
8 Pichili	=	a Ponti - -	0	0	0	8/39
10 Grains	=	a Carlin - -	0	0	1	7/12
20 Grains	=	a Tarin - -	0	0	3	1/13
6 Tarins	=	*a Florin of Ex. -	0	1	6	6/13
13 Tarins	=	a Ducat of Ex. -	0	3	4	
60 Carlins	=	*an Ounce - -	0	7	8	4/12
2 Ounces	=	a Piſtole - -	0	15	4	

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A Quatrini	=	- - -	0	0	0	1/10
6 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc - -	0	0	0	3/5
10 Bayocs	=	a Julio - -	0	0	6	
20 Bayocs	=	*a Lire - -	0	1	0	
3 Julios	=	a Teſtoon - -	0	1	6	
85 Bayocs	=	a Scudi of Ex. -	0	4	3	
100 Bayocs	=	a Crown - -	0	5	0	
105 Bayocs	=	a Ducatoon -	0	5	3	
31 Julios	=	a Piſtole - -	0	15	6	

VENICE. *Bergham, &c.*

A Picoli	=	- -	0	0	0	1/36
12 Picoli	=	a Soldi - -	0	0	0	1/3
6½ Soldi	=	*a Gros - -	0	0	2	1/6
18 Soldi	=	a Jule - -	0	0	6	
20 Soldi	=	*a Lire - -	0	0	6	2/3
3 Jules	=	a Teſtoon - -	0	1	6	
124 Soldi	=	a Ducat current -	0	3	5	1/3
24 Gros	=	*a Ducat of Ex. -	0	4	4	
17 Lires	=	a Chequin - -	0	9	2	

EUROPE, S. Parts.

TURKEY. *Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.	
	A Mangar	=	- - - - -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{2\,6}$
4	Mangars	=	an Aſper - -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{5}$
3	Aſpers	=	a Parac - -	0	0	1	$\frac{4}{5}$
5	Aſpers	=	a Beſtic - - -	0	0	3	
10	Aſpers	=	an Oſtic - -	0	0	6	
20	Aſpers	=	a Solota - - -	0	1	0	
80	Aſpers	=	*a Piaſtre - - -	0	4	0	
100	Aſpers	=	a Caragrouch - -	0	5	0	
10	Solotas	=	a Xeriff - - -	0	10	0	

ASIA.

ARABIA. *Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.*

	A Carret	=	- - - -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
$5\frac{1}{4}$	Carrets	=	a Caveer - -	0	0	0	$\frac{1\,2\,5}{2\,0\,0}$
7	Carrets	=	*a Comaſhee - -	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{1\,3}$
80	Carrets	=	a Larin - -	0	0	10	$\frac{1}{8}$
18	Comaſhees	=	an Abyſs - -	0	1	4	$\frac{1}{5}$
60	Comaſhees	=	*a Piaſtre - -	0	4	6	
80	Caveers	=	a Dollar - -	0	4	6	
100	Comaſhees	=	a Sequin - -	0	7	6	
80	Larins	=	*a Tomond - -	3	7	6	

PERSIA. *Iſpahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.*

	A Coz	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{5}$
4	Coz	=	a Biſti - - -	0	0	1	$\frac{3}{5}$
10	Coz	=	a Shahee - -	0	0	4	
20	Coz	=	a Mamooda - -	0	0	8	
25	Coz	=	a Larin - -	0	0	10	
4	Shahees	=	an Abaſhee - -	0	1	4	
5	Abaſhees	=	an Or - - -	0	6	8	
12	Abaſhees	=	a Bovello - -	0	16	0	
50	Abaſhees	=	*a Tomond - -	3	6	8	

MOGUL.

GUZZURAT. *Surat, Cambay, &c.*

	A Pecka	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{1\,5}{6\,4}$
2	Peckas	=	a Pice - -	0	0	0	$\frac{1\,5}{3\,2}$
4	Pices	=	a Fanam - -	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{8}$
5	Pices	=	a Viz - -	0	0	2	$\frac{1\,1}{3\,2}$
16	Pices	=	an Ana - -	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{4}$
4	Anas	=	a Rupee - -	0	2	6	
2	Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown -	0	5	0	
14	Anas	=	a Pagoda - -	0	8	9	
4	Pagodas	=	a Gold Rupee - -	1	15	0	

ASIA, MOGUL. MALABAR.

Bombay, Dabul, &c.

			£.	s.	d.	
* Budgrook	=	- - -	0	0	0	27/800
2 Budgrooks	=	*a Re - -	0	0	0	27/400
5 Rez	=	a Pice - -	0	0	0	27/80
16 Pices	=	a Laree -	0	0	5	2/5
20 Pices	=	a Quarter -	0	0	6	3/4
240 Rez	=	a Xeraphim -	0	1	4	1/5
4 Quarters	=	a Rupee -	0	2	3	
14 Quarters	=	a Pagoda -	0	8	0	
60 Quarters	=	a Gold Rupee -	1	15	0	

Goa, Viſapour, &c.

* A Re	=	- - -	0	0	0	27/400
2 Rez	=	a Bazaraco -	0	0	0	27/200
2 Bazaracos	=	a Pecka -	0	0	0	27/100
20 Rez	=	a Vintin -	0	0	1	7/20
4 Vintins	=	a Laree -	0	0	5	2/5
3 Larees	=	a Xeraphim -	0	1	4	1/5
42 Vintins	=	a Tangu -	0	4	6	
4 Tangus	=	a Paru -	0	18	0	
8 Tangus	=	a Gold Rupee -	1	15	0	

COROMANDEL. *Madras, Pondicherry, &c.*

A Caſh	=	- - -	0	0	0	3/80
5 Caſh	=	a Viz- - -	0	0	0	3/16
2 Viz	=	a Pice - -	0	0	0	3/8
6 Pices	=	a Pical - -	0	0	2	1/4
8 Pices	=	a Fanam - -	0	0	3	
10 Fanams	=	a Rupee -	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown -	0	5	0	
36 Fanams	=	a Pagoda - -	0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	=	a Gold Rupee -	1	15	0	

BENGAL. *Callicut, Calcutta, &c.*

A Pice	=	- - - -	0	0	0	5/320
4 Pices	=	a Fanam - -	0	0	0	5/80
6 Pices	=	a Viz -	0	0	0	15/16
12 Pices	=	an Ana - -	0	0	1	7/10
10 Anas	=	a Fiano -	0	1	6	3/4
16 Anas	=	a Rupee † -	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	a French Ecu -	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown	0	5	0	
56 Anas	=	a Pagoda -	0	8	9	

† Major Rennell informs us that we may with eaſe reduce any large ſum in rupees, to ſterling, by calculating roundly at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thouſand pounds: and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million ſterling. Introd. p. cxvii. and cxxviii.

ASIA.

SIAM. *Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.	
A Cori	=	-	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{4000}$
10 Cori	=	a Fettee	-	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{56}$
125 Fettees	=	a Sataleer	-	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
250 Fettees	=	a Sooco	-	0	1	3	
500 Fettees	=	a Tutal	-	0	2	6	
900 Fettees	=	a Dollar	-	0	4	6	
2 Ticals	=	a Rial	-	0	5	0	
4 Soocos	=	an Ecu	-	0	5	0	
8 Sataleers	=	a Crown	-	0	5	0	

CHINA. *Peking, Canton, &c.*

A Caxa	=	-	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{25}$
10 Caxa	=	a Candereen	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{4}{5}$
10 Candereens	=	a Mace	- -	0	0	8	
35 Candereens	=	a Rupee	- -	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	a Dollar	- -	0	4	6	
70 Candereens	=	a Rix-dollar	- -	0	4	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
7 Maces	=	an Ecu	- -	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	=	a Crown	- -	0	5	0	
10 Maces	=	a Tale	- -	0	6	8	

JAPAN. *Jeddo, Meaco, &c.*

A Piti	=	-	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{5}$
20 Pitis	=	a Mace	- -	0	0	4	
15 Maces	=	an Ounce Silver	-	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{3}$
20 Maces	=	a Tale	- -	0	6	8	
30 Maces	=	an Ingot	- -	0	9	8	$\frac{2}{3}$
13 Ounces Silver	=	an Ounce Gold	-	3	3	0	
2 Ounces Gold	=	a Japaneſe	-	6	6	0	
2 Japaneſes	=	a Double	- -	12	12	0	
21 Ounces Gold	=	*a Cattee	-	66	3	0	

AFRICA.

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

An Aſper	=	-	- -	0	0	0	$\frac{5}{6}$
3 Aſpers	=	a Medin	- -	0	0	1	$\frac{2}{3}$
24 Medins	=	an Italian Ducat	-	0	3	4	
80 Aſpers	=	*a Piaſtre	- -	0	4	0	
30 Medins	=	a Dollar	- -	0	4	6	
96 Aſpers	=	an Ecu	- -	0	5	0	
32 Medins	=	a Crown	- -	0	5	0	
200 Aſpers	=	a Sultanin	- -	0	10	0	
70 Medins	=	a Pargo Dollar	-	0	10	0	

AFRICA.

BARBARY. *Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
An Aſper	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{4}$
3 Aſpers	=	a Medin - -	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Aſpers	=	a Rial old Plate -	0	0	6	
2 Rials	=	a Double -	0	1	1	
4 Doubles	=	a Dollar - -	0	4	6	
14 Medins	=	a Silver Chequin -	0	3	4	
30 Medins	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
180 Aſpers	=	a Zequin - -	0	8	10	
15 Doubles	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	9	

MOROCCO. *Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangiers, Sallee, &c.*

A Fluce	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{22}$
24 Fluces	=	a Blanquil -	0	0	2	
4 Blanquils	=	an Ounce -	0	0	8	
7 Blanquils	=	an Octavo -	0	1	2	
14 Blanquils	=	a Quarto -	0	2	4	
2 Quartos	=	a Medio -	0	4	8	
28 Blanquils	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
54 Blanquils	=	a Xequin -	0	9	0	
100 Blanquils	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	9	

AMERICA. West Indies.

ENGLISH. *Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.*

* A Halfpenny	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{57}{160}$
2 Halfpence	=	*a Penny -	0	0	0	$\frac{57}{80}$
$7\frac{1}{2}$ Pence	=	a Bit -	0	0	5	$\frac{3}{8}$
12 Pence	=	*a Shilling -	0	0	8	$\frac{11}{20}$
75 Pence	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
7 Shillings	=	a Crown -	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	*a Pound -	0	14	3	
24 Shillings	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	9	
30 Shillings	=	a Guinea -	1	1	0	

FRENCH. *St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.*

* A Half Sol	=	- - -	0	0	0	$\frac{119}{640}$
2 Half Sols	=	*a Sol - -	0	0	0	$\frac{119}{320}$
$7\frac{1}{2}$ Sols	=	a Half Scalin -	0	0	2	$\frac{11}{160}$
15 Sols	=	a Scalin -	0	0	5	$\frac{3}{8}$
20 Sols	=	*a Livre -	0	0	7	$\frac{5}{160}$
7 Livres	=	a Dollar -	0	4	6	
8 Livres	=	an Ecu -	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
26 Livres	=	a Piſtole -	0	16	9	
32 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or -	1	0	0	

AMERICA.

CONTINENT.

ENGLISH. *Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.
* A Penny	=	- -	- -	0	0	1
12 Pence	=	* a Shilling	- -	0	1	0
20 Shillings	=	* a Pound	- -	1	0	0
2 Pounds						
3 Pounds						
4 Pounds						
5 Pounds						
6 Pounds						
7 Pounds						
8 Pounds						
9 Pounds						
10 Pounds						

The Value of the Currency alters, according to the Plenty or Scarcicy of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.

* A Denier		
12 Deniers	=	* a Sol.
20 Sols	=	* a Livre.
2 Livres		
3 Livres		
4 Livres		
5 Livres		
6 Livres		
7 Livres		
8 Livres		
9 Livres		
10 Livres		

The Value of the Currency alters, according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are importnd.

Note. For all the *Spaniſh*, *Portugueſe*, *Dutch*, and *Daniſh* Dominions, either on the Continent or in the WEST INDIES, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

A

NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIS, AND INVENTIONS;

ALSO,

The Æra, the COUNTRY, and WRITINGS of LEARNED MEN:

The whole comprehending in one View, the Analyſis or Outlines of General Hiſtory, from the Creation to the preſent Time.

Bef. Chriſt.

4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.
4003 The birth of Cain, the firſt who was born of a woman.
3017 Enoch, for his piety, is tranſlated to Heaven.
2348 The old world is deſtroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.
2247 The Tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's Poſterity, upon which God miraculouſly confounds their language, and thus diſperſes them into different nations.
About the ſame time, Noah is, with great probability, ſuppoſed to have parted from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of ſome of the more tractable into the Eaſt, and there either he or one of his ſucceſſors to have founded the ancient Chineſe monarchy.
2234 The celeſtial obſervations are begun at Babylon, the city which firſt gave birth to learning and the ſciences.
2188 Miſraim, the ſon of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which laſted 1663 years, down to its conqueſt by Cambyſes, in 525 before Chriſt.
2059 Ninus, the ſun of Belus, founds the kingdom of Aſſyria, which laſted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Aſſyrians of Babylon, thoſe of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.
1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of ſojourning.
1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are deſtroyed for their wickedneſs, by fire from Heaven.
1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.
1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents the letters.
1715 Prometheus firſt ſtruck fire from flints.
1635 Joſeph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Geneſis, containing a period of 2369 years.
1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God firſt high-prieſt of the Iſraelites.
1571 Moſes, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.

1556 Cecrops.

1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.
1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.
1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.
1491 Moſes performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Iſraelites, beſides children, which completed the 430 years of ſojourning. They miraculouſly paſs through the Red Sea, and come to the deſert of Sinai, where Moſes receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and ſets up the tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.
1485 The firſt ſhip that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
1453 The firſt Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.
1452 The Pentateuch, or five firſt books of Moſes, are written in the land of Moab, where he died the year following, aged 120.
1451 The Iſraelites, after ſojourning in the Wilderneſs forty years, are led under Joſhua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themſelves, after having ſubdued the natives; and the period of the ſabbatical year commences.
1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
1372 The Mileſians arrived from Spain into Ireland.
1263 Argonautic expedition.
1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193, gave riſe to the Trojan war, and ſiege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
1048 David is ſole king of Iſrael.
1004 The Temple is ſolemnly dedicated by Solomon.
896 Elijah, the prophet, is tranſlated to Heaven.
894 Money firſt made of gold and ſilver at Argos.
869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
786 Trireme galleys invented by the Corinthians.
776 The firſt Olympiad begins.
753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, firſt king of the Romans.
720 Samaria taken, after three years ſiege, and the kingdom of Iſrael finiſhed, by Salmanaſar, king of Aſſyria, who carries the ten tribes into captivity.
The firſt eclipſe of the moon on record.
658 Byzantium (now Conſtaninople), built by a colony of Athenians.
604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, ſome Phœnicians ſailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt, conſults the prieſts of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, aſtronomy, and philoſophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipſes, gives general notions of the univerſe, and maintains that one ſupreme Intelligence regulates all its motions.
Maps, globes and the ſigns of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the ſcholar of Thales.
597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.
587 The city of Jeruſalem taken, after a ſiege of 18 months.
562 The firſt comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable ſcaffold.
559 Cyrus, the firſt king of Perſia.
538 The kingdom of Babylon finiſhed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, iſſues an edict for the return of the Jews.
534 The firſt tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Theſpis.
526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library firſt founded.
515 The ſecond temple at Jeruſalem is finiſhed under Darius.
509 Tarquin, the ſeventh and laſt king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two conſuls, and other republican magiſtrates, till the battle of Pharſalia, being a ſpace of 461 years.
504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occaſion to the Perſian invaſion of Greece.
486 Æſchylus, the Greek poet, firſt gains the prize of tragedy.
481 Xerxes the Great, king of Perſia, begins his expedition againſt Greece.

458 Ezra

458 Ezra is ſent from Babylon to Jeruſalem, with the captive Jews and the veſſels of gold and ſilver, &c. being ſeventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixon of our Saviour.
454 The Romans ſend to Athens for Solon's laws.
451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the Twelve Tables compiled and ratified.
430 The hiſtory of the Old Teſtament finiſhes about this time.
Malachi the laſt of the prophets.
401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the ſoul and a ſtate of rewards, and puniſhments, for which, and other ſublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who ſoon after repent, and erect to his memory a ſtatue of braſs.
398 Catapultæ invented by Dionyſius.
379 Bæotian war commences in Greece, finiſhed in 366, after the death of Epaminondas, the laſt of the Grecian heroes. After his death, Philip, brother to the king of Macedon, who had been educated under him, privately ſet out for that country, ſeized the kingdom, and after a continual courſe of war, treachery and diſſimulation, put an end to the liberty of the Greeks by the battle of Cheronea.
336 Philip, king of Macedon, murdered, and ſucceeded by his ſon Alexander the Great.
332 Alexandria in Egypt built.
331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Perſia, and other nations of Aſia.
323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms, after deſtroying his wives, children, brother, and ſiſters.
291 Darkneſs at Rome at noon-day.
290 Solar quadrants introduced at Rome.
285 Dionyſius, of Alexandria, began his aſtronomical æra on Monday June 26, being the firſt who found the exact ſolar year to conſiſt of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.
284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs ſeventy-two interpreters to tranſlate the Old Teſtament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
269 The firſt coinage of ſilver at Rome.
264 The firſt Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles compoſed.
260 The Romans firſt concern themſelves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at ſea.
237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, cauſes his ſon Hannibal, at nine years old, to ſwear eternal enmity to the Romans.
218 The ſecond Punic war begins and continues 17 years. Hannibal paſſes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in ſeveral battles, but being amuſed by his women, does not improve his victories by the ſtorming of Rome.
190 The firſt Roman army enters Aſia, and from the ſpoils of Antiochus, brings the Aſiatic luxury firſt to Rome.
170 Eighty thouſand Jews maſſacred by Antiochus Epiphanes.
168 Perſeus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
167 The firſt library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
146 Carthage, the rival to Rome, is razed to the ground by the Romans.
145 An hundred thouſand inhabitants of Antioch maſſacred in one day by the Jews.
135 The hiſtory of the Apocrypha ends.
125 Colcheſter built.
65 Catiline's conſpiracy againſt the liberties of his country detected.
52 Julius Cæſar makes his firſt expedition into Britain.
47 The battle of Pharſalia between Cæſar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
The Alexandrian library, conſiſting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himſelf.
The ſolar year introduced by Cæſar.
44 Cæſar, the greateſt of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and ſlain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the ſenate-houſe.
43 Brutus, one of the conſpirators againſt Cæſar, and chief of the republicans, being vanquiſhed in the battle of Philippi, kills himſelf.
41 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Anthony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæſar.

30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Anthony and Cleopatra put themſelves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.
27 Octavius, by a decree of the ſenate, obtains the title of Auguſtus Cæſar, and an abſolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the firſt Roman emperor.
25 Coin firſt uſed in Britain.
8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
The temple of Janus is ſhut by Auguſtus, as an emblem of univerſal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is ſuppoſed to have been born on Monday, December 25, but according to many, in September, during the Jewiſh feaſt of tabernacles.

A. C.
12 CHRIST hearing the Doctors in the Temple, and aſking them queſtions *.
27 ——— is baptiſed in the Wilderneſs;
33 JESUS CHRIST is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 30'clock P. M.
His Reſurrection on Sunday, April 5; his Aſcenſion, Thurſday May 14.
36 St. Paul converted.
39 St. Mathew writes his Goſpel.
Pontius Pilate kills himſelf.
40 The name of Chriſtians firſt given at Antioch to the followers of Chriſt.
43 Claudius Cæſar's expedition into Britain.
44 St. Mark writes his Goſpel.
49 London is founded by the Romans; 368, ſurrounded by ditto with a wall, ſome parts of which are ſtill obſervable.
51 Caractacus, the Britiſh king, is carried in chains to Rome.
52 The council of the apoſtles at Jeruſalem.
55 St. Luke writes his Goſpel.
59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
——— perſecutes the Druids in Britain.
61 Boadicea, the Britiſh queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered ſoon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
62 St. Paul is ſent in bonds to Rome, writes his Epiſtles between 51 and 66.
63 The Acts of the Apoſtles written.
Chriſtianity is ſuppoſed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or ſome of his diſciples about this time.
64 Rome ſet on fire, and burned for ſix days; upon which began (under Nero) the firſt perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.
67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
70 Whilſt the factious Jews are deſtroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the Roman general, takes Jeruſalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to paſs over it.
79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Veſuvius.
83 The philoſophers expelled Rome by Domitian.
85 Julius Agricola, governor of South-Britain, to protect the civiliſed Britons from the incurſions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and firſt ſails round Britain, which he diſcovers to be an iſland.
96 St. John the Evangeliſt wrote his Revelation—his Goſpel in 97.
121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the ſouthern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcaſtle and Carliſle; but this alſo proving ineffectual, Pollius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's forts, which he joins by a wall four yards thick, ſince called Antoninus's wall.
135 The ſecond Jewiſh war ends, when they were all baniſhed Judea.

* "I have often thought (ſays a judicious commentator) that it is a great injury to the character of our bleſſed redeemer, to repreſent this ſtory, whether in pictures or words, as if Chriſt, at his tender age, went up into the ſeats of the Doctors and there diſputed with them. Not one word is ſaid of his diſputing by the Evangeliſt, but only of his hearing them and aſking them queſtions, which was a very uſual thing in theſe aſſemblies, and indeed the very end of them. All was conducted with the utmoſt modeſty and decorum."

139 Juſtin

139 Juſtin writes his firſt Apology for the Chriſtians.
140 Dublin built.
141 A number of hereſies appear about this time.
152 The emperor Antoninus Pius ſtops the perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.
211 Gold and ſilver coin firſt uſed in Scotland.
The emperor Severus, after having conquered the Scots, and pent them up by a new wall between the Forth and Clyde, (ſince called Graham's Dyke) having alſo conquered the Parthians in the Eaſt, and extended the Roman empire to its utmoſt bounds, dies at York.
217 The Septuagint ſaid to be found in a caſk.
222 About this time the Roman empire begins to ſink under its own weight. The Barbarians begin their eruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to moleſt the empire.
260 Valerian is taken priſoner by Sapor, king of Perſia, and flayed alive.
274 Silk firſt brought from India: the manufacture of it introduced into Europe by ſome monks, 551; firſt worn by the clergy of England, 1534.
291 Two emperors and two Cæſars, march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
306 Conſtantine the Great begins his reign.
308 Cardinals firſt began.
313 The tenth perſecution ends by an edict of Conſtantine, who favours the Chriſtians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
314 Three biſhops, or fathers, are ſent from Britain to aſſiſt at the council of Arles.
325 The firſt general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, againſt Arius, where was compoſed the famous Nicene Creed.
328 Conſtantine removes the ſeat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is from that time called Conſtantinople.
331 Conſtantine orders all the heathen temples to be deſtroyed.
363 The Roman Emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jeruſalem.
364 The Roman empire is divided into the eaſtern (Conſtantinople the capital) and weſtern (of which Rome continued to be the capital), each being now under the government of different emperors.
400 Bells invented by biſhop Paulinus, of Campagnia.
404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.
406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, ſpread into France and Spain, by a conceſſion of Honorius, emperor of the Weſt.
410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Viſi-Goths.
412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
426 The Romans reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; adviſing the Britons to arm in their own defence, and truſt to their own valour.
446 The Britons now left to themſelves, are greatly haraſſed by the Scots and Picts, upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no aſſiſtance from that quarter.
447 Attila (ſurnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns ravage the Roman empire.
449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, againſt the Scots and Picts.
455 The Saxons having repulſed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to eſtabliſh themſelves in Kent, under Hengiſt.
476 The weſtern empire is entirely deſtroyed, 523 years after the battle of Pharſalia; upon the ruins of which ſeveral new ſtates ariſe in Italy and other parts, conſiſting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other Barbarians, under whom literature is extinguiſhed, and the works of the learned are deſtroyed.
496 Clovis, king of France, baptiſed, and Chriſtianity begins in that kingdom.
508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
513 Conſtantinople beſieged by Vitalianus, whoſe fleet is burned by a ſpeculum of braſs.
516 The computing of time by the Chriſtian æra is introduced by Dionyſius the monk.
529 The code of Juſtinian, the eaſtern emperor, is publiſhed.
557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Aſia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
581 Latin ceaſed to be ſpoken about this time in Italy.

596 Auguſtine the monk comes into England with forty monks.
606 Here begins the power of the popes, by the conceſſions of Phocas, emperor of the Eaſt.
622 Mahomet, a falſe prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age and 10th of his miniſtry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their deſcent. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the Flight.
637 Jeruſalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
653 The Saracens now extend their conqueſts on every ſide, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity.
664 Glaſs invented in England by Benalt, a monk.
685 The Britons, after a brave ſtruggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
726 The controverſy about images begins, and occaſions many inſurrections in the eaſtern empire.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Chriſt began to be uſed in hiſtory.
749 The race of Abbas became caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris, is made the capital for the caliphs of the houſe of Abbas.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the Weſtern empire; gives the preſent names to the winds and months; endeavours to reſtore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet diſpoſed for it, being ſolely engroſſed in military enterprizes.
826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his ſubjects, for being a Chriſtian.
828 Egbert, king of Weſſex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fiſh.
838 The Scots and Picts have a deciſive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth, which begins the ſecond period of the Scottiſh hiſtory.
867 The Danes begin their ravage in England.
871 The ſprings at Bath firſt diſcovered.
886 Juries firſt inſtituted.
896 Alfred the Great, after ſubduing the Daniſh invaders (againſt whom he fought 56 battles by ſea and land), compoſes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county courts, and founds the univerſity of Oxford about this time.
915 The univerſity of Cambridge founded.
936 The Saracen empire is divided by uſurpation into ſeven kingdoms.
975 Pope Boniface VII. is depoſed and baniſhed for his crimes.
979 Coronation oaths ſaid to be firſt uſed in England.
991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto uſed.
996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
999 Boleſlaus, the firſt king of Poland.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in uſe; that of linen rags in 1170: the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.
1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
1015 Children forbidden by law to be ſold by their parents in England.
1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets poſſeſſion of England.
1040 The Danes, after ſeveral engagements with various ſucceſs, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hoſtile manner.
1041 The Saxon line reſtored under Edward the Confeſſor.
1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, ſerving hitherto in the armies of contending princes), become formidable, and take poſſeſſion of Perſia.
1054 Leo. IX. the firſt pope that kept up an army.
1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunſinane, and marries the princeſs Margaret, ſiſter to Edgar Atheling.
1065 The Turks take Jeruſalem from the Saracens.

1066 The battle of Haſtings fought, between Harold and William (ſurnamed the Baſtard), duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and ſlain, after which William becomes king of England.
1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Muſical notes invented.
1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German biſhops. Henry, in penance, walks bare-footed to the pope, towards the end of January.
1076 Juſtices of the peace firſt appointed in England.
1080 Doomſday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a ſurvey of all the eſtates in England, and finiſhed in 1086.
The Tower of London built by ditto, to curb his Engliſh ſubjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduced the Saxon or Engliſh language, are protected by Malcolm, and had lands given them.
1091 The Saracens in Spain being hard preſſed by the Spaniards, call to their aſſiſtance Joſeph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get poſſeſſion of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
1096 The firſt cruſade to the Holy Land is begun under ſeveral Chriſtian princes, to drive the infidels from Jeruſalem.
1110 Goodwin Sands formed by the ſea overflowing 4000 acres belonging to earl Goodwin of Kent.
1107 King's ſpeech firſt delivered by Henry I.
1110 Edgar Atheling, the laſt of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reſide as a ſubject.
Learning revived in Cambridge.
1118 The order of the Knights Templars inſtituted, to defend the ſepulchre at Jeruſalem, and to protect Chriſtian ſtrangers.
1140 King Stephen grants liberty to his nobles to build caſtles; in conſequence of which 1100 were erected in 14 years.
1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
1163 London bridge, conſiſting of 19 ſmall acres, firſt built of ſtone.
1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
1172 Henry II. king of England (and firſt of the Plantagenets), takes poſſeſſion of Ireland, which from that period has been governed by an Engliſh viceroy, or lord lieutenant.
1176 England is divided, by Henry, into ſix circuits, and juſtice is diſpenſed by itinerant judges.
1180 Glaſs windows began to be uſed in private houſes in England.
1181 The laws of England are digeſted about this time by Glanville.
1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the ſtirrups of his ſaddle when he mounted his horſe.
1186 The great conjunction of the ſun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.
1192 The battle of Aſcalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladine's army, conſiſting of 300,000 combatants.
1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* firſt uſed as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
1200 Chimnies were not known in England.
Surnames now began to be uſed; firſt among the nobility.
1208 London incorporated, and obtained their firſt charter for electing their lord mayor, and other magiſtrates, from king John.
1215 Magna Charta is ſigned by king John and the barons of England.
Court of common pleas eſtabliſhed.
1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, under Gingis-Kan, emerge from the northern parts of Aſia, over-run all the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and deſolation wherever they march.
1233 The Inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now truſted to the Dominicans.
The houſes of London, and other cities of England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.
1253 The famous aſtronomical tables are compoſed by Alonzo, king of Caſtile.
1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finiſhes the empire of the Saracens.

1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland, with 160 ſail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the weſtern iſles.
1264 According to ſome writers, the commons of England were not ſummoned to parliament till this period.
1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.
1273 The empire of the preſent Auſtrian family begins in Germany.
1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
1284 Edward II. born at Carnarvon, is the firſt prince of Wales.
1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is diſputed by twelve candidates, who ſubmit their claims to the arbitration of Edward, king of England: which lays the foundation of a long and deſolating war between both nations.
1293 There is a regular ſucceſſion of Engliſh parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
1298 The preſent Turkiſh empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
Silver-haſted knives, ſpoons, and cups, a great luxury.
Tallow candles ſo great a luxury, that ſplinters of wood were uſed for lights.
Wine ſold by apothecaries as a cordial.
1302 The mariner's compaſs invented, or improved by Givia, of Naples. The flower de luce, the arms of the duke of Anjou, then king of Naples, was placed by him at the point of the needle, in compliment to that prince.
1307 The beginning of the Swiſs cantons.
Intereſt of money in England at 45 *per cent.*
1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1310 Lincoln's Inn ſociety eſtabliſhed.
1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which eſtabliſhes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals ſet fire to the conclave and ſeparate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
1320 Gold firſt coined in Chriſtendom; 1344 ditto in England.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettle at York, which, ſays Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with an aſtronomical exactneſs.
1340 Gunpowder and guns firſt invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologn; 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of canon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Creſſy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.
Oil painting firſt made uſe of by John Vaneck.
Herald's college inſtituted in England.
1344 The firſt creation to titles by patent uſed by Edward III.
1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken priſoner.
1349 The order of the Garter inſtituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and conſiſts of 26 knights.
1352 The Turks firſt enter Europe.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the ſame as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which king John of France and his ſon are taken priſoners by Edward the Black Prince.
1357 Coals firſt brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France firſt quartered by Edward III.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Engliſh, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, begins about this time to oppoſe the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteneſs and ſpirit. His followers are called Lollards.
1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands eſtabliſhed in London.
Windſor caſtle built by Edward III.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotſpur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chace.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amuſement.

1399 Weſtminſter Abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Weſtminſter Hall ditto.
Order of the Bath inſtituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed 1725; conſiſting of 38 knights.
1402 Bajazet defeated by Tamerlane, and the power of the Turks almoſt entirely deſtroyed.
1410 Guildhall, London, built.
1411 The univerſity of St. Andrew's, in Scotland, founded.
1412 Denmark united with the crown of Norway.
1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French, by Henry V. of England.
1428 The ſiege of Orleans, the firſt blow to the Engliſh power in France, by the celebrated Maid of Orleans. She is afterwards taken priſoner, and baſely put to death.
1430 About this time Laurentius of Harlem invented the art of printing, which he practiſed with ſeparate wooden types. Gutenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of caſting the types in matrices. Frederic Corſellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton, who introduced into England the art of the printing with fuſile types in 1474.
1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The ſea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
1453 Conſtantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eaſtern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Conſtantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
1454 The univerſity of Glaſgow, in Scotland, founded. Otto Guerick, a German, invents the air-pump.
Duelling appointed in certain caſes in France, in order to have the judgment of God.
1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
1477 The univerſity of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
1483 Richard III. king of England, and laſt of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Boſworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, after a conteſt of 30 years, and the loſs of 100,000 men.
1498 Henry eſtabliſhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.
1489 Maps and ſea-charts firſt brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely ſubdued by Ferdinand, and become ſubjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill obſerved by the Spaniards, whoſe clergy employ the power of the Inquiſition, with all its tortures; and 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the oppoſite coaſt of Africa, from whence they originally came.
1492 America firſt diſcovered by Columbus, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Spain.
1494 Algebra firſt known in Europe.
1497 The Portugueſe firſt ſail to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſius, from whom it has its name.
1499 North America, ditto, for Henry VII. by Cabot.
1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany in ſix circles, and adds four more in 1512.
1505 Shillings firſt coined in England.
Chriſt College, Cambridge, founded by Henry VII.'s mother.
1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
1516 Corpus Chriſti College, of Oxford, founded by biſhop Winton.
1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt is conquered by the Turks.
1518 Magellan, in the ſervice of Spain, firſt diſcovers the ſtraits of that name in South America, but is killed by Savages in the Marianne iſlands.
1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the pope.
1529 The name of Proteſtant takes its riſe from the Reformed proteſting againſt the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.

1532 Chriſt-

1532 Chriſt-church College, Oxford, founded by Henry VIII.
1534 The Reformation takes place in England, under Henry VIII.
1537 Religious houſes diſſolved by ditto.
1539 The firſt Engliſh edition of the Bible authoriſed; the preſent tranſlation, finiſhed 1611.
About this time cannon began to be uſed in ſhips.
1543 Silk ſtockings firſt worn by the French king; firſt worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the ſteel frame for weaving invented by the rev. Mr. Lee, of John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins firſt uſed in England, before which time the ladies uſed ſkewers.
1544 Good lands let in England at one ſhilling per acre.
1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
1546 Firſt law in England eſtabliſhing the intereſt of money at ten per cent.
Ann Aſcue, a Proteſtant, cruelly tortured by order of Henry VIII. who, to the utter diſgrace of royalty, put his own hands to the rack, as not thinking the executioners ſufficiently expert. She endured every thing with patience, and was afterwards burnt.
1549 Lords lieutenants of counties inſtituted in England.
1550 Horſe guards inſtituted in England.
1555 The Ruſſian company eſtabliſhed in England.
1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
1563 Knives firſt made in England.
1569 Royal Exchange firſt built.
1572 The great maſſacre of proteſtants at Paris.
1579 The Dutch ſhake off the Spaniſh yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
Engliſh Eaſt India company incorporated—eſtabliſhed 1600.
——— Turkey company incorporated.
1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the firſt Engliſh circumnavigator.
Parochial regiſters firſt appointed in England.
1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted 15th.
1583 Tobacco firſt brought from Virginia into England.
1587 Mary Queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years impriſonment.
1588 The Spaniſh Armada deſtroyed by Drake and other Engliſh admirals.
Henry IV. paſſes the edict of Nantes, tolerating the Proteſtants.
1589 Coaches firſt introduced into England; hackney act, 1693; increaſed to 1000, in 1770.
1590 Band of penſioners inſtituted in England.
1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
1597 Watches firſt bought into England from Germany.
160, Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the laſt of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and firſt of the Stuarts) as her ſucceſſor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
1605 The Gunpowder plot diſcovered at Weſtminſter; being a project of the Roman catholics to blow up the king and both houſes of parliament.
1606 Oath of allegiance firſt adminiſtered in England.
1608 Galileo, of Florence, firſt diſcovers the ſatellites about the planet Saturn, by the teleſcope, then juſt invented in Holland.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris, by Ravilliac, [redacted].
1611 Baronets firſt created in England, by James I.
1614 Napier of Marcheſton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
1616 The firſt permanent ſettlement in Virginia.
1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Engliſhman, diſcovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
1620 The broad ſilk manufactory from raw ſilk, introduced into England.
1621 New England planted by Puritans.
1625 King James dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon Charles I.
The iſland of Barbadoes, the firſt Engliſh ſettlement in the Weſt Indies, is planted.
1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
1627 The thermometer invented by Drebellius.

1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Proteſtants in Germany, is killed.
1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular poſts eſtabliſhed from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
1640 King Charles diſobliges his Scottiſh ſubjects, on which their army, under general Leſley, enters England, and takes Newcaſtle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh proteſtants were killed.
1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had oppoſed his arbitrary meaſures, which begins the civil war in England.
1643 Exciſe on beer, ale, &c. firſt impoſed by parliament.
1646 Epiſcopacy aboliſhed in England.
1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
1654 Cromwell aſſumes the protectorſhip.
1655 The Engliſh, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the protectorſhip, by his ſon, Richard.
1659 Transfuſion of the blood firſt ſuggeſted at Oxford.
1660 King Charles II. is reſtored by Monck, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Epiſcopacy reſtored in England and Scotland.
The people of Denmark, being oppreſſed by the nobles, ſurrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes abſolute.
1662 The Royal Society eſtabliſhed in London by Charles II.
Pendulum clocks invented by John Fromentel, a Dutchman.
Fire-engines invented.
1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two ſeparate governments.
1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the Engliſh.
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 perſons.
1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were deſtroyed 13,000 houſes, and 400 ſtreets.
Tea firſt uſed in England.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the Engliſh the New Netherlands, now known by the name of Pennſylvania, New York, and New Jerſey.
1668 ———— Aix la Chapelle.
St. James's Park planted, and made a thorough-fare for public uſe by Charles II.
1670 The Engliſh Hudſon's Bay Company incorporated.
1672 Lewis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their ſluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.
African company eſtabliſhed.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act paſſed.
1680 A great comet appeared, and from its nearneſs to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued viſible from Nov. 3, to March 9.
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennſylvania.
1683 India ſtock ſold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is ſucceeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural ſon to Charles II. raiſes a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantes infamouſly revoked by Lewis XIV. and the proteſtants cruelly perſecuted.
1687 The palace of Verſailles, near Paris, finiſhed by Lewis XIV.
1688 The revolution of Great Britain begins, Nov. 5. King James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.
1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and ſon-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.
Viſcount Dundee ſtands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general Mackey, at the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, diſperſe.

1689 The land-tax paſſed in England.
The toleration act paſſed in ditto.
Several biſhops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William againſt James, in Ireland.
1691 The war in Ireland finiſhed, by the ſurrender of Limerick to William.
1692 The Engliſh and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Ruſſel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muſkets firſt uſed by the French againſt the Confederates in the battle of Turin.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England eſtabliſhed by king William.
The firſt public lottery was drawn this year.
Maſſacre of Highlanders at Glencoe, by king William's troops.
1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties inſtituted in England.
1696 The peace of Ryſwick.
1699 The Scots ſettled a colony at the iſthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
King James II. dies at Germains, in the 68th year of his age.
1701 Pruſſia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the Goſpel in foreign parts eſtabliſhed.
1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is ſucceeded by queen Anne, daughter to James II. who with the emperor and ſtates-general, renews the wars againſt France and Spain.
1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim, won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, againſt the French.
The court of Exchequer inſtituted in England.
1706 Treaty of Union between England and Scotland, ſigned July 22.
The battle of Ramillies, won by Marlborough and the allies.
1707 The firſt Britiſh parliament.
1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
1710 Queen Anne changes the whig miniſtry for others more favourable to the intereſt of her ſuppoſed brother the late pretender.
The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by ſir Chriſtopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The Engliſh South-Sea company began.
1712 Duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde-Park.
1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Britain, and Hudſon's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were alſo confirmed to the ſaid crown by this treaty.
1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50, and is ſucceeded by George I.
Intereſt reduced to five per cent.
1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is ſucceeded by his great-grandſon, Lewis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the ſurrender of Preſton, both in November, when the rebels diſperſe.
Aurora Borealis firſt taken notice of.
1716 The Pretender married to the princeſs Sobieſki, grand-daughter of John Sobieſki, late king of Poland.
An act paſſed for ſeptennial parliaments.
1719 The Miſſiſippi ſcheme at its height in France.
Lombe's ſilk throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the reſt; and in twenty-four hours, it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine ſilk thread.

1719 The South-Sea ſcheme in England begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite ſunk about September 29.
1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age, and is ſucceeded by his only ſon, George II.
Inoculation firſt tried on criminals with ſucceſs.
Ruſſia, formerly a dukedom, is now eſtabliſhed as an empire.
1732 Kouli Khan uſurps the Perſian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred thirty-one millions ſterling.
Several public-ſpirited gentlemen begin the ſettlement of Georgia in North America.
1736 Captain Porteous, having ordered his ſoldiers to fire upon the populace, at the execution of a ſmuggler, is himſelf hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.
1737 The earth proved to be flatted towards the poles.
1738 Weſtminſter-Bridge, conſiſting of fifteen arches, begun; finiſhed 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.
1739 Letters of marque iſſued out in Britain againſt Spain, July 21, and war declared October 23.
Violent froſt for nine weeks after Chriſtmas.
1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the Engliſh and allies, in favour of the Queen of Hungary.
1744 War declared againſt France. Commodore Anſon returns from his voyage round the world.
1745 The allies loſe the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
1746 Britiſh Linen Company erected.
Electric ſhock diſcovered.
Lima and Callao ſwallowed up by an earthquake.
1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a reſtitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all ſides.
1749 The intereſt of the Britiſh funds reduced to three per cent.
Britiſh herring fiſhery incorporated.
1751 Frederic, prince of Wales, father to his preſent majeſty, died.
Antiquarian ſociety at London incorporated.
1752 The new ſtyle introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
1753 The Britiſh Muſeum erected at Montague Houſe.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, inſtituted in London.
1755 Liſbon deſtroyed by an earthquake.
1756 146 Engliſhmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the Eaſt Indies, by order of the Nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine ſociety eſtabliſhed at London.
1757 Damien attempted to aſſaſſinate the French king.
Identity of electric fire and lightning diſcovered by Dr. Franklin, who thereupon invented a method of ſecuring buildings from thunder-ſtorms by metallic conductors.
1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the Engliſh.
1760 King George II. dies, October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is ſucceeded by his preſent majeſty, who, on the 22d of September, 1761, married the princeſs Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Black-Friars Bridge, conſiſting of nine arches, begun; finiſhed 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll.
1762 War declared againſt Spain.
Peter III. emperor of Ruſſia, is depoſed, impriſoned, and murdered.
American philoſophical ſociety eſtabliſhed in Philadelphia.
George Auguſtus Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12.
1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extenſive provinces of Canada, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and part of Louiſiana, in North America; alſo the iſlands of Granada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the Weſt Indies.
1764 The parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr. Harriſon, for his diſcovery of the longitude by his time-piece.

1765 His majeſty's royal charter paſſed for incorporating the ſociety of artiſts.
An act paſſed annexing the ſovereignty of the iſland of Man to the crown of Great Britain.
1766 April 21, a ſpot or macula of the ſun, more than thrice the bigneſs of our earth, paſſed the ſun's centre.
1768 Academy of painting eſtabliſhed in London.
The Turks impriſon the Ruſſian ambaſſador, and declare war againſt that empire.
Electricity of the aurora borealis diſcovered by Wideburg at Jena.
1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his majeſty's ſhip the Endeavour, lieut. Cook return from a voyage round the world, having made ſeveral important diſcoveries inhe South Seas.
1772 The king of Sweden changes the conſtition of the kingdom.
The Pretender marries a princeſs of Germany, grand daughter of Thomas, late earl of Ayleſbury.
A dreadful fire at Antigua.
Twelve hundred and forty people killed in the iſland of Java by an electrified cloud.
A revolution in Denmark.
The emperor of Germany, empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, ſtrip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themſelves, in violation of the moſt ſolemn treaties.
1773 Captain Phipps is ſent to explore the North Pole; but having made 81 degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to diſcover a paſſage in that quarter proves fruitleſs.
The Jeſuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and ſuppreſſed by his bull, Aug. 25.
The Engliſh Eaſt India company, having, by conqueſt or treaty, acquired the extenſive provinces of Bengal, Orixa, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their ſervants abroad, upon which government interferes, and ſends out judges, &c. for the better adminiſtration of juſtice.
The war between the Ruſſians and Turks proves diſgraceful to the latter, who loſe the iſlands in the Archipelago, and by ſea are every where unſucceſsful.
1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Ruſſians and Turks.
The Britiſh parliament having paſſed an act, laying a duty of three pence per pound upon all teas imported into America; the coloniſts, conſidering this as a grievance, deny the right of the Britiſh parliament to tax them.
Deputies from the ſeveral American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the firſt general congreſs, Sept. 5.
Firſt petition of Congreſs to the king, Nov.
1775 April 19, The firſt action happens in America between the king's troops and the Provincials at Lexington.
May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.
June 16, A bloody action at Bunker's-Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.
1776 March 17, The town of Boſton evacuated by the king's troops.
An unſucceſsful attempt, in July, made by commodore ſir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-Town, in South Carolina.
The Congreſs declare the American colonies free and independent ſtates, July 4.
The Americans are driven from Long Iſland, New York, in Auguſt, with great loſs, and great numbers of them taken priſoners; and the city of New York, is afterwards taken poſſeſſion of by the king's troops.
December 25, General Waſhington takes 900 of the Heſſians priſoners at Trenton.
Torture aboliſhed in Poland.
1777 General Howe takes poſſeſſion of Philadelphia.
Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to ſurrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, October 17.
1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the Thirteen United American Colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.

1778 The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expence in Weſtminſter Abbey, June 9, in conſequence of a vote of parliament.
The earl of Carliſle, William Eden, eſq. and George Johnſtone, eſq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commiſſioners for reſtoring peace between Great Britain and America.
Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.
The congreſs refuſe to treat with the Britiſh commiſſioners, unleſs the independence of the American colonies were firſt acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn from America.
An engagement fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet under the command of the count d'Orvilliers, July 27.
Dominica taken by the French, Sept. 7.
Pondicherry ſurrenders to the arms of Great Britain, Oct. 17.
St. Lucia taken from the French, December 28.
1779 St. Vincent taken by the French, June 17.
Granada taken by the French, July 3.
1780 Torture in courts of juſtice aboliſhed in France.
The inquiſition aboliſhed in the duke of Modena's dominions.
Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two ſail of Spaniſh ſhips, Jan. 8.
The ſame admiral alſo engages a Spaniſh fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ſhips of the line, one more driven on ſhore, and another blown up, Jan. 16.
Three actions between admiral Rodney and the count de Guichen, in the Weſt Indies, in the months of April and May; but none of them deciſive.
Charles-Town, South Carolina, ſurrenders to ſir Henry Clinton, May 4.
Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, ſurrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.
The pretended Proteſtant Aſſociation, to the number of 50,000, go up to the houſe of commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act paſſed in favour of Papiſts, June 2.
That event followed by the moſt daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for ſeveral ſucceſſive days, in which ſome Popiſh chapels are deſtroyed, together with the priſons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, ſeveral private houſes, &c. Theſe alarming riots are at length ſuppreſſed by the interpoſition of the military, and many of the rioters tried and executed for felony.
Five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips bound for the Weſt Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Auguſt 8.
Earl Cornwallis obtains a ſignal victory over general Gates, near Camden, in South Carolina, in which above 1000 American priſoners are taken, Aug. 16.
Mr. Laurens, late preſident of the congreſs, taken in an American packet, near Newfoundland, Sept. 3.
General Arnold deſerts the ſervice of the Congreſs, eſcapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice, Sept. 24.
Major André, adjutant-general to the Britiſh army, hanged as a ſpy at Tappam, in the province of New York, Oct. 2.
Mr. Laurens is committed priſoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treaſon, October 4.
Dreadful hurricanes in the Weſt Indies, by which great devaſtation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other iſlands, Oct. 3, and 10.
A declaration of hoſtilities publiſhed againſt Holland, Dec. 10.
1781 The Dutch iſland of St Euſtatia taken by admiral Rodney, and general Vaughan, Feb. 3. Retaken by the French, Nov. 27.
Earl Cornwallis obtains a victory, but with conſiderable loſs, over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15.
The iſland of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.
A bloody engagement fought between an Engliſh ſquadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger-Bank, Auguſt 5,

1781 Earl Cornwallis, with a conſiderable Britiſh army, ſurrendered priſoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of general Waſhington, and count Rochambeau, at York town, in Virginia, Oct. 19.

1782 Trincomale, on the iſland of Ceylon, taken by admiral Hughes, Jan. 11.
Minorca ſurrendered to the arms of the king of Spain, Feb. 5.
The iſland of St. Chriſtopher taken by the French, Feb. 12.
The iſland of Nevis, in the Weſt Indies, taken by the French, Feb. 14.
Montſerrat taken by the French, Feb. 22.
The houſe of commons addreſs the king againſt any farther proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, March 4; and reſolve, that the houſe would conſider all thoſe as enemies to his majeſty, and this country, who ſhould adviſe, or by any means attempt, the farther proſecution of offenſive war on the continent of North America, for the purpoſe of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.
Admiral Rodney obtains a ſignal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Graſſe, near Dominica, in the Weſt Indies, April 12.
Admiral Hughes, with eleven ſhips, beat off, near the iſland of Ceylon, the French admiral Suffrein, with twelve ſhips of the line, after a ſevere engagement, in which both fleets loſt a great number of men, April 13.
The reſolution of the Houſe of Commons relating to John Wilkes, eſq. and the Middleſex election, paſſed Feb. 17, 1769, reſcinded May 3.
The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legiſlation of Ireland, received the royal aſſent, June 20.
The French took and deſtroyed the forts and ſettlements in Hudſon's Bay, Aug. 24.
The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.
Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, Oct. 8.
Proviſional articles of peace ſigned at Paris between the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, by which the Thirteen United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majeſty to be free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates, Nov. 30.

1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majeſty, and the kings of France and Spain, ſigned at Verſailles, Jan. 20
The order of St. Patrick inſtituted, Feb. 5.
Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, deſtroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28th.
Armiſtice between Great Britain and Holland, Feb. 10.
The firſt air-balloon let off in Paris, by M. Mongolfier, Aug. 27.
Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sept. 3.

1784 The city of London wait on the king with an addreſs of thanks for diſmiſſing the coalition miniſtry, Jan. 16.
The great ſeal ſtolen from the lord chancellor's houſe in Great Ormond-ſtreet, March 24th.
The ratification of the peace with America arrived, April 7.
The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Weſtminſter Abbey, May 26.
Proclamation for a public thankſgiving, July 2.
Mr. Lunardi aſcended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the firſt attempt of the kind in England, Sept. 15.
Aſcended at Edinburgh.

1785 Dr. Seabury, an American miſſionary was conſtituted biſhop of Connecticut, by five nonjuring Scotch prelates, Nov.

1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the uſe of torture in his dominions. Cardinal Turlone, high inquiſitor at Rome, was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incenſed multitude for cuelty, and hung on a gibbet 50 feet high.
Commercial treaty ſigned between England and France, Sept 26.
471,000l. 3 per cent. ſtock transferred to the landgrave of Heſſe, for Heſſian ſoldiers loſt in the American war, at 30l. a man, Nov. 21.

1786 Mr.

1786 Mr. Adams, the American ambaſſador, preſented Dr. White, of Pennſylvania, and Dr. Provoſt of New York, to the archbiſhop of Canterbury, to be conſecrated biſhops for the United States. They were conſecrated Feb. 4. 1787.

1787 Mr. Burke, at the bar of the houſe of lords, in the name of all the commons of Great Britain, impeached Warren Haſtings, late governor-general of Bengal, of high crimes and miſdemeanours, May 21.

The king, by letters-patent, erected the province of Nova Scotia into a biſhop's ſee, and appointed Dr. Charles Inglis to be the biſhop, Aug. 11.

1788 In the early part of October, the firſt ſymptoms appeared of a ſevere diſorder, which afflicted our gracious ſovereign. On the 6th of November they were very alarming, and on the 13th a form of prayer for his recovery was ordered by the privy council.

1789 His majeſty was pronounced to be in a ſtate of convaleſcence, Feb. 17, and to be free from complaint, Feb. 26.

A general thankſgiving for the king's recovery, who attended the ſervice at St. Paul's with a great proceſſion, April 23.

Revolution in France, capture of the Baſtile, execution of the governor, &c. July 14.

1790 Grand confederation in the Champ de Mars, July 14.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. *By the Dates is implied the time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flouriſhed is ſignified by* fl. *The Names in* Italics *are thoſe who have given the beſt Engliſh Tranſlations, excluſive of School-books.*

Bef. Chr.

907 HOMER, the firſt profane writer and Greek poet, flouriſhed. *Pope. Cowper.*
Heſiod, the Greek poet, ſuppoſed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*

884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.

600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poeteſs, fl.

558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.

556 Æſop, the firſt Greek fabuliſt. *Croxal.*

548 Thales, the firſt Greek aſtronomer and geographer.

497 Pythagoras, the founder of the Pythagorean philoſophy in Greece. *Rowe.*

474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addiſon.*

456 Æſchylus, the firſt Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*

435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *Weſt.*

413 Herodotus, of Greece, the firſt writer of profane hiſtory. *Littlebury. Beloe.* Lempriere.

407 Ariſtophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*
Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*

406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin. Potter.*
Confucius, the Chineſe philoſopher, fl.

400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy in Greece.

391 Thucydides, the Greek hiſtorian. *Smith. Hobbes.*

361 Hippocrates, the Greek phyſician. *Clifton.*
Democritus, the Greek philoſopher.

359 Xenophon, ditto, and hiſtorian. *Smith. Spelman. Aſhly. Fielding.*

348 Plato, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*

340 Lyſias the Greek orator. *Gillies.*

336 Iſocrates, the Greek orator. *Dimſdale.*

332 Ariſtotle, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*

313 Demoſthenes, the Athenian orator, poiſoned himſelf. *Leland. Francis.*

288 Theophraſtus, the Greek philoſopher, and ſcholar of Ariſtotle. *Budgel.*

285 Theocritus, the firſt Greek paſtoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*

277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simſon.*

270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philoſophy in Greece. *Digby.*

264 Xeno, founder of the ſtoic philoſophy in ditto.
244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet.
208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.* Cooke
155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the ſtoic philoſopher.
124 Polybius of Greece, the Greek and Roman hiſtorian. *Hampton.*
54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
44 Julius Cæſar, the Roman hiſtorian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the univerſal hiſtorian, fl. *Booth.*
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philoſopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*
34 Salluſt, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon. Roſe.*
30 Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Spelman.*
19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton.*
11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger. Dart.*
8 Horace, the Roman lyric and ſatiric poet. *Francis.*

Af. C.
17 Livy, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hay.*
19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
20 Celſus, the Roman philoſopher and phyſician, fl. *Grieve.*
25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
33 Phædrus, the Roman fabuliſt. *Smart.*
45 Paterculus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Newcome.*
62 Perſius, the Roman ſatiric poet.
64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman hiſtorian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*
Seneca, of Spain, the philoſopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Eſtrange.*
65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*
79 Pliny the Elder, the Roman natural hiſtorian. *Holland.*
93 Joſephus, the Jewiſh hiſtorian. *Whiſton.*
94 Epictetus, the Greek ſtoic philoſopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter.*
95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
99 Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon.*
104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
116 Pliny the younger, hiſtorical letters. *Melmoth, Orrery.*
117 Suetonius, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hughes.*
119 Plutarch of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden, Langhorne.*
128 Juvenal, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Dryden.*
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and aſtronomer, fl.
150 Juſtin, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Turnbull.*
161 Arrian, the Roman hiſtorian and philoſopher, fl. *Rooke.*
167 Juſtin, of Samaria, the oldeſt Chriſtian author after the apoſtles.
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dimſdale. Dryden. Franklin.*
Marcus Aur. Antoninus, Roman emperor and philoſopher. *Collier, Elphinſton.*
193 Galen, the Greek philoſopher and phyſician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Caſſius, of Greece, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
254 Origen, a Chriſtian father of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Hart.*
258 Cyprian, of Carthage, ſuffered martyrdom. *Marſhal.*
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
336 Arius, a prieſt of Alexandria, founder of the ſect of Arians.
342 Euſebius, the eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian and chronologer. *Hanmer.*

379 Baſil,

379 Baſil, biſhop of Cæſarea.
389 Gregory Nazianzen, biſhop of Conſtantinople.
397 Ambroſe, biſhop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropius, the Roman hiſtorian.
524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philoſopher. *Bellamy. Preſton.*
529 Procopius of Cæſarea, the Roman hiſtorian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illuſtrious liſt of ancient, or, as they are ſtyled, claſſic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, thoſe two great theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a ſmall part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of thoſe fierce illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, ſubverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined ſoon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Conſtantinople alone had eſcaped the ravages of the Barbarians; and to the few literati who ſheltered themſelves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preſervation of thoſe valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, ſucceeded worſe than Gothic ignorance—the ſuperſtition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the ſpace of a thouſand years; a period which hiſtorians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century, from which memorable æra a race of men have ſprung up in a new ſoil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at leaſt equal the greateſt geniuſes of antiquity. Of theſe our own countrymen have the reputation of the firſt rank, with whoſe names we ſhall finiſh our liſt.

A. C.
735 Bede, a prieſt of Northumberland; hiſtory of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; hiſtory of England.
1292 Roger Bacon, Somerſetſhire; natural philoſophy.
1308 John Fordun, a prieſt of Merns-ſhire, hiſtory of Scotland.
1400 Geoffery Chaucer, London; the father of Engliſh poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas More, London; hiſtory, politics, divinity,
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Aſcham, Yorkſhire; philology and polite literature.
1572 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; hiſtory of the church of Scotland.
1582 George Buchannan, Dumbartonſhire; hiſtory of Scotland, Pſams of David, politics, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenſer, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
1616 William Shakſpeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1622 John Napier, of Marcheſton, Scotland; diſcoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Camden, London; hiſtory and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philoſophy and literature in general.
1634 Lord Chief Juſtice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
1638 Ben. Jonſon, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
1654 John Seldon, Suſſex; antiquities and laws.
1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; diſcovered the circulation of the blood.
1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miſcellaneous poetry.
1674 John Milton, London; Paradiſe Loſt, Regained, and various other pieces in verſe and proſe.
Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltſhire; Hiſtory of the Civil Wars in England.
1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.
1677 Reverend Dr. Iſaac Barrow, London; natural philoſophy, mathematics, and ſermons.
1680 Samuel Butler, Worceſterſhire; Hudibras, a burleſque poem.
1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, ſpeeches, letters, &c.
1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somerſetſhire; Intellectual Syſtem.
1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorſetſhire; Hiſtory of Phyſic.
1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.

1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philoſophy and theology.
Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; antiquities and laws of Scotland.
1694 John Tillotſon, archbiſhop of Canterbury, Hallifax; 254 ſermons.
1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics, and polite literature.
1701 John Dryden, Northamptonſhire; 27 tragedies and comedies, ſatiric poems, Virg.
1704 John Locke, Somerſetſhire; philoſophy, government, and theology.
1705 John Ray, Eſſex; botany, natural philoſophy, and divinity.
1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.
1713 Ant. Aſh. Cooper, earl of Shafteſbury; characteriſtics.
1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, biſhop of Saliſbury; hiſtory, biography, divinity, &c.
1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonſhire; ſeven tragedies, tranſlation of Lucan's Pharſalia.
1719 Reverend John Flamſtead, Derbyſhire; mathematics, and aſtronomy.
Joſeph Addiſon, Wiltſhire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics, and aſtronomy.
1721 Matthew Prior, London; poems and politics.
1724 William Wollaſton, Staffordſhire; Religion of Nature delineated.
1727 Sir Iſaac Newton, Lincolnſhire; mathematics, geometry, aſtronomy, optics.
1729 Reverend Dr. Samuel Clark, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordſhire; ſeven dramatic pieces.
1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Merns-ſhire, medicine, coins, politics.
1742 Dr. Edmund Halley; natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, navigation.
Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkſhire; claſſical learning, criticiſm.
1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, tranſlation of Homer.
1745 Reverend Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.
1746 Colin M'Laurin, Argyleſhire; algebra, View of Newton's Philoſophy.
1748 James Thomſon, Roxburghſhire; Seaſons, and other poems, five tragedies.
Reverend Dr. Iſaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philoſophy, pſalms, hymns, ſermons, &c.
Dr. Francis Hutcheſon, Airſhire; ſyſtem of moral philoſophy.
1750 Reverend Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkſhire; Life of Cicero, &c.
Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphyſics, and natural philoſophy.
1751 Henry St. John, lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philoſophy, mataphyſics, and politics.
Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poiſons, plague, ſmall-pox, medicine, precepts.
Henry Fielding, Somerſetſhire; Tom Jones, Joſeph Andrews, &c.
1757 Colly Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.
1761 Thomas Sherlock, biſhop of London; 69 ſermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadly, biſhop of Wincheſter; ſermons and controverſy.
Samuel Richardſon, London; Grandiſon, Clariſſa, Pamela.
Reverend Dr. John Leland, Lancaſhire; Anſwer to Deiſtical Writers.
1765 Reverend Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, 3 tragedies.
Robert Simpſon, Glaſgow; conic ſections, Euclid, Apollonius.
1768 Reverend Lawrence Sterne; 45 ſermons, Sentimental Journey, Triſtram Shandy.
1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnſhire; harmonics and optics.
1770 Reverend Dr. Jortin; Life of Eraſmus, Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, and ſermons.
Dr. Mark Akenſide, Newcaſtle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollett, Dumbartonſhire; Hiſtory of England, novels, tranſlations.
1771 Thomas Grey, Profeſſor of Modern Hiſtory, Cambridge; poems.
1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Cheſterfield; letters.
George lord Lyttelton, Worceſterſhire; Hiſtory of England.
1774 Oliver Goldſmith; poems, eſſays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, biſhop of Rocheſter; Annotations on the New Teſtament, &c.
1775 Dr. John Hawkeſworth; eſſays.
1776 David Hume, Merſe; Hiſtory of England, and eſſays.
James Ferguſon, Aberdeenſhire; aſtronomy.
1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.

William Warburton, biſhop of Glouceſter; Divine Legation of Moſes, and various other works.

1780 Sir William Blackſtone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.

Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkſhire; philoſophy and medicine.

James Harris, Hermes; Philological Inquiries, and Philoſophical Arrangement.

1782 Thomas Newton, biſhop of Briſtol, Litchfield; Diſcourſes on the Prophecies, and other works.

Sir John Pringle, bart. Roxboroughſhire; Diſeaſes of the Army.

Henry Home, lord Kaims, Scotland; Elements of Criticiſm, Shetches of the Hiſtory of Man.

1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkſhire; anatomy.

Dr. Benjamin Kennicot; Hebrew Bible, &c.

1784 Dr. Samuel Johnſon, Litchfield; Engliſh Dictionary, biography, eſſays, poetry. Died Dec. 13, aged 75.

1785 William Whitehead, Poet Laureat; poems and plays.

Reverend Richard Burn, LL. D. author of the Juſtice of Peace, Eccleſiaſtical Law, &c. Died Nov. 20.

Richard Glover, eſq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. Died Nov. 25.

1786 Jonas Hanway, eſq. Travels, miſcellanies. Died Sept. 5, aged 74.

1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, biſhop of London; divinity and grammar. Died Nov. 3.

Soame Jenyns, eſq. Internal Evidence of the Chriſtian Religion, and other pieces. Died Dec. 18.

1788 James Stuart, eſq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart." Died Feb. 1.

Thomas Gainſborough, eſq. the celebrated painter. Died Aug. 2.

Thomas Sheridan, eſq. Engliſh Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c. Died Aug. 14.

William Julius Mickle, eſq. tranſlator of the Luſiad. Died Oct. 25.

1789. Dr. William Cullen, Practice of Phyſic, Materia Medica, &c. Died Feb. 5.

1790 John Howard, eſq. Account of Priſons and Lazarettos, &c. Died at Cherſon, in Ruſſia, Jan. 20.

Benjamin Franklin, eſq. Electricity, Natural Philoſophy, miſcellanies. Died April 17.

Dr. Adam Smith; Moral Sentiments, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations. Died April 17.

Reverend Thomas Warton, B. D. poet-laureat; Hiſtory of Engliſh Poetry, poems. Died April 21.

1791 Reverend Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganſhire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reverſionary Payments, Sermons, &c. Died Feb. 19, aged 68.

Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; poems, Conſolations from natural and revealed Religion. Died July, aged 70.

1792 Sir Joſhua Reynolds, Preſident of the Royal Academy of Painting; Diſcourſes on Painting, delivered before the Academy; he died Feb. 23, aged 68.

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